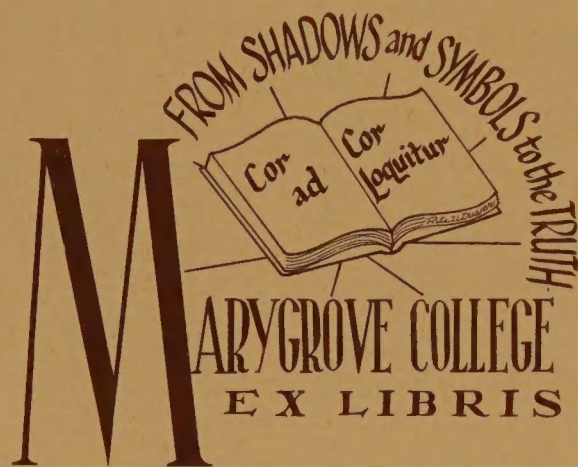




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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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Editorial—

For Those With Seeing Eyes

On the campus at Peabody College one may get some valid and vivid glimpses of the Old South at its best, and no section anywhere has laid firmer hands upon the reality of Beauty. Choose a good day in May, or early June, before the thirst of summer has wasted the vernal freshness of the scene, while spring and summer stand a bit uncertainly with clasped hands and wait. Go half way along one of the walks that transverse the main campus. Then stop and look with seeing eyes. Don't hurry. You haven't time for that. Not in many places would you be the center of such loveliness. How green grows the grass, green in the manifold shades that only God could have imagined into existence. Let your eyes linger upon the trees, oaks and maples and hackberrys that in stately grace line the sides, standing proud and casting beneath them a Southern twilight of dark and dappled shadows. On the western side there are some ginkgos, trees with strange leaves and a strange upward thrust, trees almost as old as time itself. On the northern side there are three spreading magnolias, just now bursting into great blooms. June is the month of blooming for the magnolias, though some do linger into the deeper summer. But for all their loveliness the glory of the magnolia is not in its blooms. It is in its leaves, deep and strong and rare in their rich and enduring green. Neither drought nor frost dulls the vitality of magnolia leaves.

The picture is Southern, Southern in its commingling of colors, in the grace and charm of its vistas, in the little wispy clouds that drift idly

about in the sky, Southern in the pillared porches of its buildings, Southern in its continuity. Two months ago jonquils (directly descended from those planted by President James Priestley in 1813) were blooming on the campus. A few minutes ago a young lady passed along the walk whose ancestor was inducted into the presidency in 1824.

The main campus is a hollow quadrangle, framed by the trees and buildings. On the highest eminence, forming the southern boundary, is the Social Religious building, compounded of the best building concepts from two of the main concentrations of ancient culture. There it is, outlined majestically against a soft blue sky, studded with little, drifting, fleecing clouds. From the Social Religious building the campus falls by gentle terraces to Edgehill Avenue and the Demonstration School. On both sides of the various levels are the other buildings, their columns white in the sun except for the mottled shadows that play about upon them. Inside those buildings young men and women are becoming acquainted with the truths in the various fields of human experience, with the skill and art of teaching and learning. Here, seeing with understanding eyes, one may become acquainted with the truth of Beauty itself.

Teaching as a Creative Process

EVELYN WILLSON WENDT

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A few years ago a reporter, trying to track down the wellspring of the creative process, asked Edna Ferber "why" she writes. Her reply was at once startling and satisfying—" . . . because it is less agonizing to write than not to write." Many people would be greatly surprised, however, if today's dedicated teacher were to state in forthright fashion that it is less agonizing to teach than not to teach. The agonies of teaching they are well acquainted with, for they have heard about the recalcitrant youth who, like the whining schoolboy of Shakespeare's day, "goes unwillingly to school." But to teach because one feels one **MUST**, doesn't make sense. Surely the teacher is in his profession because of "the short hours" or "the summers off." And if to this already incomprehensible picture, the dedicated teacher were to add the remark, "I teach because I love it and—well—because (plunging) I **THINK IT'S CREATIVE**," he would immediately have joined the ranks of the eccentric. After all, whoever heard of **TEACHERS** being creative? Didn't Shaw say, "He who can, does; he who cannot, teaches."? Luckily, most self-appointed critics would probably not be sufficiently well versed in the Shavian brand of acrid humor to go on to another well-quoted remark in which Shaw tells us that there is no worse abortionist than he who tries to mold the child. Nevertheless, despite these negative reactions, many teachers would readily agree that teaching **IS** a creative process and that in the interaction in the classroom, considerable "molding" of the child does take place. Surely teaching is no less a creative process than writing, painting, or composing, and the dedicated teacher can readily see himself as creative artist, for in his work the elements of the creative process—immersion, openness to experience, inspiration, and elaboration—are all present.

Immersion

That immersion is an essential quality of good teaching is well

known. Many voices have been raised in the past few decades stressing the importance of a good sound knowledge of subject matter in teaching, and standards have been set accordingly. Just as you cannot construct a house, a painting or a concerto without a firm foundation, so in teaching, you can't, as the saying goes, give what you haven't got. Occasionally there springs into being a creative genius who is self-taught or a writer who produced a masterpiece simply by taking pencil in hand, but these are the exceptions. Most creative artists spend years of disciplined practice learning the rudiments of the creative medium, and they find ultimate creation to be, as Dylan Thomas so aptly described it, a "laboriously churning" process. Even Shakespeare had to go down to London town to study under a master in order to acquire the "know-how" of playwrighting. Hemingway, as everyone knows, served his apprenticeship as a reporter, grinding out news stories which were to provide the basis for his dynamic, straightforward style of writing. The teacher, too, serves this kind of apprenticeship. The four undergraduate years, consisting of amassing knowledge regarding subject matter, acquiring and storing away techniques of teaching which will enhance classroom presentation in the future, and serving a period of practice teaching under the guidance of a master teacher, comprise the rudiments which make the ultimate performance possible. These constitute the foundations of the creative process. In addition, advanced study for the master's degree and periodic in-service courses make the teacher's immersion a continuous experience.

An equally important aspect of the teacher's immersion is what might be termed "dedication." The creative teacher must feel that teaching is as important to him as art is to the painter or music to the composer. Despite the difficulties and frustrations—the papers to correct, the discipline problems, the overcrowded classrooms—he must feel that the end is worthwhile. This is sometimes difficult, but a disregard of obstacles, a forging ahead in the hope that tomorrow will be better, a seriousness of purpose—seem to characterize all creative effort. Thomas Wolfe, teaching in a university and hating it (for this was not HIS creative medium), working on his novel in a basement flat during the Depression, walking aimlessly across the Brooklyn Bridge in the middle of the night because he was not physically tired

enough to sleep after eighteen hours bent over a typewriter, was sustained by a vision of the finished product—the novel accomplished and acclaimed. The teacher has no such final concrete product to hold up to the world to show that he, too, like the artist or writer, has been involved in the creative process, for he deals with intangibles. His sufferings, like the writer's, are very real—substandard classrooms, poor pay, lack of social prestige. The difference lies in the fact that the teacher's end product is rarely seen. Nevertheless, it IS there, just as surely as the book, the canvas, the musical notes. Perhaps the teacher cannot see it, grasp it, define it, or measure it, but a single idea given to a child or many children may have more effect than this world dreams of. This, perhaps, is why Henry Adams tells us, "A teacher affects eternity; he can never tell where his influence ends."¹

And this perhaps is the reason that teachers, when asked WHY they entered the profession, give inspirational replies such as those recorded in Louise Sharp's excellent and informative book, *Why Teach?*. John Lester Buford, for example, gives profound evidence of his commitment to teaching in a refrain which recurs throughout the book when he tells us, "If I had it to do again, I would choose teaching. Knowing what I know now, I would choose it even more enthusiastically than I did when I started in a rural school 38 years ago."² Mary Ellen Chase writes vividly in the same book of the students who have given her "the best life anyone could have."³ Harry Overstreet speaks of teaching as a "privilege and a delight" and adds that if life "like a waiter in an inn" were to ask him, "What'll you have now?" he would reply, "More of the same."⁴ Author-teacher Helen C. White remarks that throughout the years "the teacher discovers that he comes to receive more than he ever gave."⁵ Dr. M. F. Ashley Montagu summarizes his views with a lofty tribute to his calling:

To lead and to cause to grow, to be led in turn and thus to grow oneself, what greater satisfaction can there be? Teachers are the unacknowledged legislators of the world; they are instruments of purposes greater than

¹ Henry Adams. *The Education of Henry Adams*. Boston and New York, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918. p. 300.

² D. Louise Sharp. *Why Teach?* New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1957. p. 21.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 26.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 175.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 238.

themselves—the noble purposes with which they can inspire their pupils. What a challenge. What a privilege.⁶

It is convictions such as these which give reassurance that creative elements are at work in the teaching process.

Inspiration

The creative teacher is, above all, an inspiring teacher. Basic to the inspirational process is the teacher's power to look inward and muster all his inspirational resources to give the students the best of which he is capable. Jacques Barzun emphasizes this role in *Teacher in America* when he tells us, "You know by instinct that it is impossible to 'teach' democracy, or citizenship or a happy married life. I do not say that these benefits and virtues are not somehow connected with good teaching. They are, but they occur as by-products. They come not from a course but from a teacher; not from a curriculum, but from a human soul."⁷ In addition, the inspirational aspect of the creative process in the classroom is in a pattern of give and take. The teacher gives inspiration, but he also receives it. Surely there is scarcely a teacher alive with soul so dead that he has not at some time or other been inspired by his students in the classroom. Sometimes students' responses to the challenge of learning may aid the teacher in soaring to new heights of teaching effectiveness. These are the best days for teaching—days on which inspiration is wonderfully reciprocal.

Openness to Experience

The sight of Galileo, the great mathematics teacher at the University of Pisa, standing at the top of the leaning tower of Pisa and conducting experiments to prove his theory that all falling bodies descend with equal velocity must have seemed a strange and laughable sight to the populace of his day. However, it is sometimes necessary to deviate a little or surrender conformity in the creative process. In the classroom, this openness to experience may seem to take a very limited form, but there is actually ample outlet for the teacher's thirst to try the new and different. Oftentimes it is a search for the best approach or the best way of teaching a particular class. No two classes are the same, and it would be folly to try to handle all in the same way. Sometimes

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 162.

⁷ Jacques Barzun. *Teacher in America*. Boston, Little Brown and Co., 1945. p. 9.

a previously successful approach must be abandoned or adapted in the course of teaching, but this, too, is part of the creative process, for, as author Virginia Woolf tells us in the introduction to the book, *Mrs. Dalloway*, she was forced to give up her efforts to work out a plan for the book and to proceed without method or theory. All of the approaches she had used in the past were unsuitable for this book which seemed to have a unique and untenable character of its own. The classroom situation can take on this character, too.

Openness to experience has become almost a necessity in the rapidly changing space age in which we live. The modern teacher cannot afford to reside in an ivory tower. To enhance the quality of his teaching, he must go out and seek new experience. And there are many ways to acquire experience. Travel is one of them. Just as Joseph Conrad and Herman Melville enriched their works with wonderfully vivid descriptions of their experiences at sea, so can the teacher enrich his presentation of geography, literature, history, international relations with insights from a trip to Europe and other parts of the world. Many do. But such trips are expensive and not always possible. There are other ways. The Bronte sisters scarcely ever left the limits of their father's vicarage, but their novels were brimming with life as they had experienced it—through books. Thus reading is another way the teacher can broaden and deepen his knowledge of the new and interesting, despite limitations of his everyday life. These, then, are the means at the teacher's disposal (and they are considerable): travel, reading books and professional magazines, summer workshops, courses, lectures which provide new insights from psychology and other fields. Openness to experience obviously has many facets. Could Edna St. Vincent Millay have had this in mind when she tells us in "Renaissance":

The world stands out on either side,
No wider than the heart is wide.⁸

Elaboration

Elaboration is perhaps the most difficult part of the creative process. It requires skill, concentration, patience, perseverance, and a tireless

⁸ Edna St. Vincent Millay. *Collected Lyrics of Edna St. Vincent Millay*. New York and London, Harper and Bros., 1943, p. 13.

giving of one's self and one's time. It is the point at which man's best effort must be put forth, or he fails. Steinbeck, for example, confesses that parts of his works have been rewritten at least seven times; D. H. Lawrence is reported to have written *Lady Chatterley's Lover* over three times; and Shelley, who found this stage infinitely tedious, often abandoned the work at hand and consequently left many fragments. Yet the seeming drudgery of changing, rewriting, testing, revising, eliminating are ALL part of the creative process. This heartening clarification gives more significant meaning to the role of repetition for emphasis, theme correcting, testing and demonstrating in classroom teaching and to the teacher's constant struggle to revise and improve the quality of his elaboration procedures.

A Final Word

Unfortunately, very few people today regard teaching as a creative process. In fact, very few teachers do, for many of them feel that inspiration and openness to experience are not a necessary part of teaching, and their elaboration is often without variety or change. Inevitably, they fail at teaching just as a half-hearted author would fail at creating a masterpiece. It is no wonder that Jacques Barzun tells us, "Teaching is not a lost art but the regard for it is a lost tradition."⁹ What the professor needs is more individuals who regard teaching as a creative process and about each of whom it might be said, to borrow a description from Chaucer, "And gladly would he learn and gladly teach."

⁹ Barzun, *op. cit.*, p. 12.

Japanese Education—After the Americans Left

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George Peabody College for Teachers

The military occupation of Japan after its defeat in World War II has often been described as a happy experience for both conqueror and conquered. The Allied forces were well received, and there were few incidents to mar the development of a cooperative and even friendly atmosphere. American observers, depending on whether they were tough or tender-minded, were likely to view the situation in one of two ways. Some thought that the smooth service obviously obscured hidden motives, for the “slyness” and “cunning” of Japanese were well known. Others, equally sincere and equally naive, felt that since the Japanese were freed from those who had “misled them,” they automatically would embrace an individualistic, decentralized democratic way of life.

In the first few years after the surrender many fast-moving reforms were effected which appeared to prove the validity of the thesis of the tender-minded. A fine democratic constitution was drawn up (written largely by the American military staff and later translated into the Japanese language) and readily approved. The mighty and feared huge industrial corporations were disbanded to allow more opportunity for the healthy growth of free enterprise. The police lost much of their power which they had often used in brutal fashion and officially assumed the roles of servants of the public rather than the strong arm for government coercion. But nowhere were the democratic changes more dramatic than in the field of education. Here the control and administration were taken from Tokyo and decentralized to the province, municipality, and local community. Textbooks were no longer written in the Ministry of Education but by private authors to be published through private publishers. Educational opportunity, especially for girls, was extended; and more freedom was brought to the hitherto authoritarian classroom. American educators hailed the new policies

as representing the most successful exportation of American educational ideas.

But with the expiration of the occupation in 1952, educational and political policies were implemented which seemed to show merit in the arguments of the tough-minded. Japan appeared to be moving away from the direction envisaged by the American military government, and Americans began to question the depth of postwar reforms. There was, in post-occupation Japan, a general movement toward centralization of control in areas of public concern, including education. Much of the authority given to the local educational authorities during the occupation now reverted to the central Ministry of Education. Accompanying the movement of centralization were a re-introduction of formal morals teaching in the schools and the initiation of a teacher inspection system, requiring administrative personnel to draw up efficiency rating plans for all teachers. These reversals of policy did not always come easily, for they were opposed by some parents and many teachers.

Since the policies of the occupation constitute a democratic experiment on a grand scale to make Japan a "show place of democracy in Asia," the outcome of this experiment is of vital concern to Americans. The two authors of this article, one American and one Japanese, are educators who, from different vantage points, have closely observed recent educational changes in Japan. They have selected four important educational areas currently in a state of flux in Japan and will express their views on each.

1. *Educational Control.* Three important changes in post-occupation Japan relating to educational control will be discussed here: the revision of the school board system, the recentralization of control of textbooks, and the creation of a system for rating teacher efficiency. A brief description of the postwar background of each of these changes will be given, and then each author will offer his interpretation.

The establishment of local school boards was considered by the occupation authorities to be an important aspect of democratizing Japanese education. Acting on the recommendation of the first and second American Education Missions and with the support of liberal Japanese educators, laws were passed establishing local and prefectural school boards. These boards were designed to have wide policy-making

powers, and the Ministry of Education was thereby relegated to a service agency. After independence, new legislation provided that school board members who previously had been elected by the general public were henceforth to be appointed by the governor, in the case of the prefectural boards, and by the mayor, in case of the local boards. The actions and policies of the local boards became subject to the control of prefectural boards which, in turn, needed approval from the Ministry of Education on important policy matters.

Another power stripped from the Japanese Ministry of Education during the postwar period was the publication of textbooks. Although the Ministry continued to set certain minimum standards, textbooks were allowed to be published by private publishers and selected for use by local school boards. Since independence, the Ministry has taken steps to more closely supervise the content of textbooks. Officials of the Ministry now read the manuscript of each proposed textbook before it is printed and make alterations consistent with the policies of the Ministry. Recent incidents have demonstrated the possibility of academic infringement by the Ministry on an author's privilege to write the truth as he sees it. When reports were circulated on several occasions from textbook authors accusing the Ministry officials of substantially altering their interpretations, suspicion was expressed in some academic circles that government censorship had been revived.

One of the severest educational controversies in post-occupation Japan concerned an efficiency rating system for teachers. In 1950 a law was passed, subjecting all public officials, including teachers, to evaluation. No attempt, however, was made to enforce this law with regard to teachers until 1958. At this time the Ministry of Education required that school boards observe the law and that principals be instructed to present rating lists of teachers. Strikes by teachers under the direction of the Teachers' Union ensued, and many principals refused to obey the order. In spite of this opposition the Ministry of Education has taken steps to see that evaluation of teachers is made as provided by law.

Adams—I view these changes as part of the whole process of recentralization taking place in Japan. The Japanese government has justified centralism as a means of eliminating the pernicious political

influences of certain groups, particularly the Teachers' Union. However, while it is true that the leftist-led Union successfully introduced propaganda into the schools, it is also true that many Japanese teachers who certainly are not Communist have opposed government action for professional, not political, reasons. The action taken by American authorities in advocating extensive decentralization of educational control was probably hasty, for there are few roots in Japanese culture that would nourish the growth of decentralized authority. It may be that Americans, as they are often accused, are quixotically idealistic when working in other cultures; yet, on the other hand, extensive recentralization may be equally as hasty, considering that it is in opposition to the prevailing professional view. While I cannot agree with some of the occupation authorities who equated democratic education with localized control, I do feel that the Japanese too readily justify recentralization as the only way fitting the Japanese culture.

The controversy over the location of decision-making powers in education indicates the lack of a generally acceptable social philosophy among Japanese leaders. For those who seek philosophic guidelines for a new Japan by probing its past heritage of Confucian, Buddhist, and Shinto thought, a power structure with authority emanating from Tokyo becomes a logical conclusion. For others, who believe that the maintenance of a hierarchical society with paternalistic social relationships, when coupled with Western institutional forms, has resulted in a dangerous national neurosis, new responsibilities for the community and new freedoms for the individual seem justifiable. This latter group argues that a creative, scientific and democratic society presupposes wide dissemination of decision-making opportunities and powers.

Oshiba—As far as the revision of the school board system is concerned, the changes are, I think, generally natural and necessary. I am of the opinion that this educational reform, although made on the American model, was generally good for Japan. However, it was made too radically, as well as too hastily. The Japanese people were not accustomed to operating such an extremely decentralized system, and as a result there occurred something that the Americans, as well as the Japanese, did not foresee. Many teachers sought board membership and were elected with the backing of the Teachers' Union. This

led in many cases to the Board becoming hardly more than a tool of the Teachers' Union. Much confusion and many unwelcomed incidents followed which the Ministry was unable to quell due to its reduced status.

By the revision of the law the situation has improved. One should not be so simple as to think of decentralization as democratic and centralization as undemocratic. Though I agree that the decentralization of the Japanese educational system was brought about for the purpose of democratization, I do not think it appropriate or just to call it reactionary and undemocratic if modification has been made in the direction of centralization. Nor do I believe, I must add, that complete recentralization should be adopted in Japanese education in the near future.

Conflicts thus far between textbook authors and Ministry officials have been minor incidents. Often arguments have arisen merely over the factual bases of particular statements or conclusions. Considering the major importance of textbooks and the fact that mistakes of statement are sometimes found in them, it may be necessary for the Ministry to examine them strictly.

2. Extension of Educational Opportunity. Four basic steps were taken by occupation authorities to assist in the realization of increased educational opportunity: (1) reorganization of a multi-tract system into a single-tract system with the concurrent extension of compulsory education from six to nine years; (2) provision for coeducation at the secondary and higher levels; (3) the establishment of part-time and correspondence education; (4) the restructuring of higher education, including the introduction of "American" style graduate programs and a system of junior colleges.

In the post-occupation period, the following changes have taken place: (1) The last year of the junior high school (which is also the last year of compulsory education) now offers prevocational, as well as courses preparatory for high school. (2) Separate schools for girls and boys have appeared in some cases at the secondary level. (3) There has been an increase in the number of regular students but surprisingly a decrease in the number of part-time students. (4) New graduate courses have been added to the universities, but some faculties

still refuse to "Americanize" further by offering the Ph.D. degree. The reorganization and the functions of the junior colleges are still under discussion.

Adams—Again these changes smack of American biases, and I think the ones that will remain must have roots in Japanese thinking. Considering the tremendous drive of the Japanese people, nine years of compulsory education will probably stay in existence, as well as the part-time classes and correspondence courses. Although national universities have been slow in accepting coeducation, I believe this will also remain, for there have been social forces at work in Japan even before World War II to bring such about. Increased availability of public schooling has been largely the product of modernization and industrialization of Japanese society which began during the Meiji Restoration in the nineteenth century. The changing attitude toward the role of Japanese women is the outgrowth of industrial needs, as well as postwar educational thought. Because of this, coeducation will be a lasting part of the Japanese scene.

Although I am very critical of many of the practices of the prewar Japanese Universities, I cannot accept the validity of two of the significant changes urged by the Americans. The suggested extension of general education studies into the universities was, I believe, premature considering the economic level of Japan. American educators have difficulty in accepting the idea that general education for a nation that cannot afford to give all of its youth a complete secondary education may reasonably stop at a pre-university level. Professional criticism could also be leveled at the formal graduate programs with their ritualism of prescribed courses. Japanese educators were correct in their analysis that such arrangements have bureaucratic but not scholastic significance and could not substitute for a prolonged intimate working relationship between professor and student.

Oshiba—I feel that these changes are relatively minor and neither stimulate nor retard educational progress in Japan. Democracy requires a continuous extension of educational opportunity, and the Japanese people realize this. The endeavors they have made, in spite of their poverty, to establish the new junior high schools especially should be appreciated. I shall now explain my view on each of these changes:

(1) The re-introduction of a differentiated curriculum in the junior high school is not an act against equality of educational opportunity, nor is it a rebirth of the former dual-track system as some people claim. Rather, such modifications in the curriculum as have been made are for the purpose of providing more challenging experiences for the able students.

(2) The introduction of coeducation was one of the best policies that the occupation left in Japan. Though it was enforced despite the wishes of most of the parents and teachers, the results have been generally good, and the principle of coeducation has become firmly established.

(3) Before the war only 15 per cent of elementary school graduates entered secondary schools. Now nearly 100 per cent of the Japanese youth enter the junior high school, and 60 per cent of these enter the senior high school. This may be the most remarkable proof of the extension of educational opportunity; but there are still problems with regard to the part-time schools. Employers, for example, are not willing for their employees to attend school; and big companies do not welcome graduates of the part-time schools but prefer to select their personnel from the regularly established institutions.

(4) While it is true that some students in the new graduate courses are lower in academic competence than those of the prewar period, most of the ills of the Japanese university can be traced to its refusal to support modern or experimental ideas.

3. *Curriculum and Methods.* In the postwar years the occupation authorities tended to make it possible for teachers to exercise more freedom in the development of curricular materials adapted to the needs and abilities of the individual student. By rewriting the history textbooks and excluding courses in Shushin (explicit instruction in moral education), nationalistic propaganda was eliminated. Liberal Japanese educators joined in the task of breaking the formal lecture-recitation method so common in Japanese prewar schools. Exuberant American advisers and Japanese scholars, fond of novelty, introduced such unJapanese-sounding schemes as the Virginia Plan and the Santa Barbara Plan. Even in remote Japanese hamlets, teachers could be found discussing the "experience curriculum."

Post-occupation changes brought about largely by the Ministry of Education reversed many of these trends. As previously mentioned, the Ministry strengthened its supervision of the content of textbooks. Further, academic standards were tightened, and a special course in moral education was introduced into the schools. Some authorities stated that the excessive freedom introduced into the schools had ill effects upon the Japanese youth. Others claimed that the life-adjustment curriculum had promoted low academic standards. Although the schools did not acquire the semi-military aspects of prewar days, they did lose much of their progressive appearance.

Adams—There seem to be two parallel movements in recent Japanese history affecting Japanese cultural and educational development. The first is a tremendous effort, extended by the Japanese, to acquire the technical skills needed by an advancing industrialized power. Parallel to this movement, however, has been the consistent efforts of Japanese leaders to preserve what they considered to be the true Japanese way of life. It seems to me that increased supervision of teaching, dissatisfaction with the social studies and other life-adjustment efforts, and the re-introduction of a separate morals course indicate that the older generation wishes to re-instill the tested values of the traditional way.

On the other hand, a large proportion of the teachers have accepted the newer curriculum and methods and are resisting changes which may bring about the more formal, the more rigidly academic school. At least one study lends weight to this interpretation. A modest research project conducted by Colardarci [Arthur P. Colardarci, "The Professional Attitudes of Japanese Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. LII, No. 9, May, 1959, pp. 323-324] resulted in the conclusion that Japanese teachers were at least able to verbalize "reform consistent attitudes." (Colardarci defines seven such attitudes: valuing pupil interests and purposes, emphasis upon inquiry, permissiveness in pupil control, willingness to encourage pupil participation, viewing the subject as having instrumental value—rather than disciplinary—willingness to recognize and provide for individual differences and ability, and optimism about pupil capacity for self-responsibility.)

Oshiba—Dr. Adams in his article, "The Rebirth of Moral Education in Japan," [*Comparative Education Review*, Vol. IV, No. 1, June,

1960] maintains that recent changes in Japanese education are “negative reactions to American reforms following World War II,” of which “the re-introduction of formal courses in moral education into the nation’s schools” was a culmination. Although some Japanese scholars share this opinion with Dr. Adams, I cannot agree. I believe that the introduction of the new moral education (not the prewar morals course, Shushin) was quite natural and necessary in Japan where religious influence is so weak. Shushin was first introduced into nineteenth century Japanese schools in imitation of the French “Cours de Morale.” Unfortunately during the decades prior to World War II Japanese militarists made extensive use of Shushin as a means of indoctrination. It was militarism that misled the Japanese people, and the contents of the newly established moral education is not reactionary but, on the contrary, quite moderate.

With regard to the apparent widespread criticism of the “new” education, it only exposes the Japanese tendency to imitate foreigners. Japanese scholars are very diligent in introducing a new idea, a new thought, or a new theory from abroad. They have not failed to notice the decline in the popularity of progressive education in America. It is thus no wonder that to speak unfavorably of the “new” education has become fashionable. Japanese education is finally shaking itself free from the mere imitation of American education, though it still has much to learn from the latter. Japanese teachers understand and like the spirit of “new” education, but they are obliged to follow a somewhat more rigorous approach in order that students may be prepared for the severe entrance examinations.

4. *Youth Unrest.* One of the most disturbing things to observers in post-occupation Japan is the unrest and insecurity of Japanese youth which has manifested itself through delinquency, politically aggressive student organizations, and a multiplicity of western fads. This general unrest became dramatically apparent to Americans when extensive student demonstrations forced the cancellation of a planned trip by former President Eisenhower. It could be expected that defeat in war, partial elimination of a paternalistic hierarchy of values, and the easy availability of the wondrous free ways of the victors should promote insecurity and even license. Yet by 1961, sixteen years after the

end of World War II, the situation appears to be little, if any, better.

Adams—The causes for the postwar youth problem in Japan are probably diverse. Certainly it is naive to blame the unrest, as some Japanese do, wholly on American movies, popular music, and progressive educational methods. It is somewhat less naive but hardly satisfactory to suggest that the cause for the existing social and emotional problems of this generation of Japanese lies embedded in the “national psychology” of the people. To say that the recent outbreaks of violence and delinquency are a manifestation of irrationalism and emotionalism historically perceptible in the Japanese character still does not explain why these outbreaks have been so common during the last few years.

The most valid interpretation of the unrest of young Japanese probably is related to the societal and family changes commented on previously. The Japanese youth who, in prewar times, lived in a tightly circumscribed world with well-defined codes of loyalty and obedience had little opportunity to make individual decisions. Their acceptance in postwar times of the materialism, and superficially of the social habits of a commercialized and individualized society, left them without moorings. The Japanese youth appeared in haste to discard traditional values; yet neither family nor school has been able to assist him in finding appropriate substitutes. Many Western religious and secular values are unacceptable or incomprehensible to the majority of young Japanese; but no new Japanese Way has thus far appeared which can synthesize the individualistic values requisite to living in modern Japan with the charm and stability of old Japan.

Oshiba—Whenever I visited a high school in America, I made it a rule to explain the real situation that prevented President Eisenhower from visiting Japan. Communists are not so powerful in Japan. But not only the Communists but also the general public joined the demonstrations to oppose inviting Mr. Eisenhower. As the former premier of Japan tried to cling to his power by inviting the American president, the people rose against him. Especially the impetuous but idealistic young people were vigorously involved in leading the demonstrations.

After speaking these words before groups of happy American students, I often wondered whether Japanese students would have raised

such noise if they had been put in as comfortable a situation as American students enjoyed. I could not help sympathizing with the Japanese students. But the difference between conditions in America and in Japan are not only in student life. In fact, the whole Japanese people, as well as the youth, are in a state of unrest. Adults are only covering up their frustrations and insecurity. Too many people are crowded on the two small islands. Though the Japanese people have recovered from the damages of war, their economic situation still is not sound. Though they realize that they cannot live without America, their country is located too close to the Communist countries to ignore the fact. What would happen to them if war broke out? The youth comprehends the agony of the nation very well, and they see about them the poverty, hypocrisy, and corruption of the adult world. Yet they must study hard in order to pass the severe entrance examinations to college, for failure here means the end of all ambitious dreams of the future. Even academic success and a university diploma usually mean long, frustrating years of office work with low economic returns. It is rather natural, then, that their young, adventurous spirit sometimes drives them to caprice. It is beyond the strength of education to solve this unrest, for its roots are both economic and social.

Reading Instruction: A Reconceptualization

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Reading can no longer be considered merely as a “school subject” which some people might be privileged to learn and wear as an adornment. Speaking, for example, is not a school subject; it has for many millenia been too pervasive. Speaking is something one learns because everyone is doing it, and speaking is a skill absolutely necessary to human survival. I know of no non-talking human groups. This symbolic behavior is the primary difference between man and the other animals. Man can carry the most important parts of his world with him, both in time and in place. Today reading has joined speaking as a completely necessary skill, and it is linked with speaking as an integral part of child development in almost all societies.

Reading and talking, and their complementary aspects, writing and listening, are all parts of a complete inter-communication skill matrix. These various skills can hardly be broken down or abstracted even for purposes of instruction. Hence, our emphasis in recent years upon “the language arts.” I will try to deal with the combination of speaking and reading because many of the difficulties presently encountered in learning to read English can be lessened by considering the intimate connection between a child’s speech and beginning reading.

The present controversy about reading instruction could not occur except for the fact that speaking and reading are separated for instructional purposes. It is time that we not only consider them together but know why they must be considered together. In order to do this I must present some history. The controversy in the field of reading instruction came about because of two facts. The parties to the controversy singled out a single fact as fundamental and devised instructional procedures on the assumption that the one fact chosen could be used with little regard for the other. This is a prime example of over-simplifying some-

thing that is not simple. These two facts do not stand as separate entities.

The first fact is that English is a language with an alphabet. True, but English is not like Spanish or Italian, it is more like French in that the letters and combinations do not stand for unique sounds. There is no definite sound-to-letter relationship in English. However, it was assumed since English is an alphabetic language that it should be possible to construct the written language out of these alphabetic elements. This can be done if proper regard is given to the multitude of exceptions and complexities occasioned by English being a hybrid language. It would be much better to consider the alphabet and word analysis as an abstract process which could ultimately be helpful in learning to write and spell, but not much help in the beginning in relating written symbols to spoken symbols, as indeed it isn't. The connecting of oral symbols with objects, followed by connecting written symbols with objects is the temporal order in which language is learned. English, it turns out, is only partially phonetic, and therein lies the difficulty in using an alphabetic or phonetic analysis as the basis for beginning reading instruction.

The second fact, and the notion upon which most present reading instruction in America is based, is the discovery that printed words have characteristic shapes and are recognizable as unitary wholes. This is true, but it is *not a sufficient basis* for the development of a self-contained instructional method for teaching beginning reading. I am referring to the discovery by James McKeen Cattell in 1883 in Leipzig while he was a graduate student of psychology in the laboratory of Wilhelm Wundt, namely, that it takes almost twice as long to read both words and letters which have no connections than those which are embedded in a meaningful context. This means that one can identify a whole word just as easily and as quickly as any single letter comprising it.¹

By the 1920's this important discovery had influenced some American educators to the point where they were willing to junk the old phonetic system of teaching reading and to emphasize a "look and say" approach

¹ Cattell, James McKeen. "Ueber die Zeit der Erkennung und Benennung von Schriftzeichen, Bildern und Farben." *Philosophische Studien*, 1885, 2, 635-650.

to beginning reading. It works. But in junking the phonetic approach a difficulty was introduced which had not been a problem under the old method. The old method had its own problems. The "look and say" method is just fine for the very beginners, but one cannot possibly live long enough to develop much of a vocabulary, and one does not learn how to analyze and discover new words. This latter feature was the greatest value of the older approach. This is where phonetic analysis must come back into the picture. The problem is to get these two aspects into the proper developmental sequence. These two facts must be brought into relationship with the process of learning within a given individual.

Reading can be learned only as an aspect of total language development along the dimension of time. Speech comes first. Oral language is learned by infants in contact with their parents and their siblings. Speech sounds become symbols for objects and associations are established quite naturally. Children are able to respond to many thousand orally presented symbols by the age they enter upon formal schooling. The ubiquitous printed words are also symbols for objects.

Another fact now enters the picture. Children are curious, unless that curiosity has been prematurely removed by conventional schooling and other forms of acculturation. The child will want to know what those little black marks are. Here is the transition point.

The members of the child's family must teach the child that these printed marks also represent objects. An object not only has a noise associated with it, but a little black mark can also be associated with an object. (Do not fear anthropomorphising at this point.) It is perfectly proper to refer to the little black mark as "saying" something just as a sound says something. Now the child has two associations for the same object. Words can be either spoken or written, as we well know. Help the child to associate both the sounds and the little black marks with objects. This is the place to emphasize the shape of the little black marks that are the whole word. This is not the place to talk about ABC's or engage in phonetic analysis. The child will single those parts out as soon as he is aware of them and not before.

Here you can see that my emphasis is upon the learner and not upon the teacher or the teaching process. Reading can be understood

only as a learning situation for an individual. The important elements are thrown entirely out of perspective by an emphasis upon teaching and teaching methods. The parents and teachers are facilitators of learning and development; to assure any other role can be disastrous to the learner. Many teachers, many parents, and most critics of school practices do not understand that language development in a child is behavioral and that the study of language in children is primarily psychological in nature and not mechanical. Development cannot be forced, but it can be nurtured by those who understand the learning process in children.

Hence, we must attend to the temporal sequence in language learning. First, and always, there are experiences. Second, these experiences must become associated with oral speech. Third, written symbols are also experiences and must be shown to be connected with experiences as oral words are. The important generalization here is the temporal sequence.

The parents and teachers must know that children are developing a world of language and that education is the formal means whereby that world is constructed.

A quotation from Roger Brown indicates the problem:²

A symbol cannot represent its meaning to someone who has no experience with the thing signified. The writer and his reader must see the same world in the same way.

Teachers must understand the rationale of this process as well as they know the techniques of teaching. Teachers know about experience charts and other paraphernalia, but they must understand the rationale of their methods. Education is world-building.³ Language makes it possible for us to have a much more complex world, but it is a world of one's own making and all of us should understand that fact.

² Brown, Roger. *Words and Things: An Introduction to Language*. 1958, Glencoe, Illinois, The Free Press, p. 59.

³ Davidson, Thomas. *Education as World-Building*. 1925, Cambridge, Massachusetts, The Harvard University Press.

Promoting Critical Thinking in International Studies

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Life today is fraught with awesome problems and responsibilities. The immanence of global destruction confronts and confounds man while he tensely explores ways of giving life to effective international controls. And he finds himself in a world where chaotic upheavals are precipitously ushered in by revolutionary political and social changes.

American education, however, has not been oblivious to these problems. Schools have taken up the challenge by recognizing that an understanding of peoples and ideologies of other lands has never been more imperative; consequently, in many social studies classrooms, an increasing emphasis has been given this area of study.

A major objective of many of these studies is to foster enlightenment and a critical understanding and interpretation of international affairs. Many teachers no longer study a country exclusively by a data-collecting, factual approach, but study it, moreover, as a cultural area in which the behavior of human beings and the activities of nations are placed within their respective cultural contexts. In addition to this approach, a critical appraisal of a greater magnitude could be undertaken. For within the process of collecting and interpreting data and placing it within the framework of its own cultural context, there is no guarantee that the teacher will deal with essential concepts that lie at the core of world trends and problems.

There are a number of essential concepts, no matter what cultural area is studied, that should be given primary consideration. I used a few of these basic concepts in my seventh grade social studies classes to heighten understanding of world affairs and promote critical thinking. What follows is an account of the procedure employed and the thinking of pupils on these concepts.

1. *People in the world differ greatly*

This concept was presented and illustrated by drawing on diverse behavioral and cultural patterns from many areas of the world. After these differences were clearly understood, I asked, "Why do people around the world differ greatly?" Several different reasons were offered. "Different languages" was given by one pupil. This opened an opportunity to probe further. "Why are there many different languages or dialects in certain areas of the world?" "What effect do these different languages have on human differences?" These were some of the questions asked.

Several other pupils suggested that "people have different beliefs"; but, when asked why this is so, many were exceedingly perplexed. One or two finally suggested that "People are taught different things." Pupils were encouraged to think through this response. Some thought they knew, but said they could not explain. I attempted to present a clear, simplified explanation, making sure that some questions remained unanswered so as to encourage further thinking. One pupil volunteered that people are different because they have been isolated from others. Then a lively discussion ensued on the effects of geography on human differences. Later, I tried to point out that democracy is built on diversity—not uniformity—and this is one important way our system differs from totalitarian states. And I suggested that human diversity fosters human progress whenever views are sympathetically entertained and there is agreement on the means used to attain ends, such as belief in democratic practices as a means to attain diverse goals. After this idea was exploded, pupils raised questions that tended to move us in to our second concept.

2. *There are basic characteristics shared by all people*

After discussing human differences, pupils found it difficult to think of what characteristics all people have in common. Besides asserting that all people are human beings, they seemed unable to specify how people are alike. After thinking through several ideas, a number of pupils stated that we all have the same basic bodily parts and the same organic system, though some quickly exclaimed that this does not hold true for all people. And, at this point, I explained that we all have

the same neuro-muscular system through which we learn; thereafter a discussion ensued on the implications of this idea. As we moved on, some suggested that all people have a religion; but, after the class considered this for a while, a few rejected this idea and substituted the notion that all people manifest some form of faith. It was also suggested that all people have some feeling of 'right and wrong'; others pointed out that, although most people have such conceptions, they do not necessarily agree. Then I raised two questions: "Are there certain principles that everyone should believe in?" "How do we determine if one form of conduct is 'better' than another?" These questions provoked thought, but they tended to be too philosophical for pupils of their age level. One pupil stated that "All people want freedom," but he was unable to get his classmates to agree. After this idea was explored, I suggested that all people live in groups and show similarities in regulating their group life. This led into a brief and simplified analysis and exposition of social institutions, small group behavior and normative integration.

3. Two-thirds of the world's population is dark-skinned

On presenting this concept, pupils eventually were led to speculate on the validity of beliefs in racial superiority, which took the form of a modified debate of the 'nature vs. nurture' controversy. After concurring that ostensible racial differences should be attributed to unequal civic and educational opportunities, the discussion moved to an analysis of the causes and effects of prejudice. One conclusion tended to emerge: America is losing ground internationally, especially with the underdeveloped nations of the world, due to its inability to solve its own racial problems; thus the leading countries during the latter half of the twentieth century will be those that understand the problems and aspirations of the dark-skinned peoples.

4. There is a population explosion in the world today

Some pupils were unaware of the population explosion, while those who were informed could not differentiate between the type of population growth occurring in the United States and the population problems experienced in Asia. In order to make this differentiation clear, the class was led into a discussion of the influence of population, tech-

nology, scientific knowledge and other factors on standards of living. This led us somewhat afield, but it provided an opportunity to consider economic and technological problems that affect human well-being. A sociological analysis of the roles of the members of a family in rural, agrarian societies as contrasted to families in urban, industrial societies was undertaken to elucidate the relationship of family size to social custom and the economic level of a culture. The pupils experienced little difficulty understanding ideas associated with the family, perhaps because these experiences were so much a part of their lives. Finally, the concept of scarcity of goods was considered.

5. Revolution is a characteristic of today's world

The concept of revolution was not completely foreign to the class. From their work with current events, they were able to identify many nations where revolutions had occurred during the past few years. But they found it more difficult to assess the underlying reasons for this unrest. A few pupils pointed out that "people did not like the way they had been treated." This remark encouraged an analysis of actual conditions that led to revolts and uprisings. The role of international communism in world revolutions was discussed; however revolutions were noted where communism did not play a significant part. Pupils were encouraged to observe the social consequences, as well as the means used by insurgents to bring about their goals, in specific revolutions. The contention that the United States is not sympathetically attuned to the aspirations of the emerging nations of the world was given careful consideration. Pupils tended to agree that America's hope of maintaining its position of strength in the world community was in no small measure contingent upon a revitalization of leadership and vision in this area.

These were the concepts that we analyzed in class. This is not to assume, however, that equally important alternative concepts should not be presented. Selection was based on an evaluation of the concepts that most likely, at this stage in pupil development, would be of most value to the class. In retrospect, this approach yielded good results in enlarging understanding of world affairs and in promoting critical thinking. This may recommend it to others who are contemplating a similar undertaking.

Letter-Writing Ability of Fourth Grade Pupils

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Since language ability is positively correlated with intelligence one might expect pupils of higher intelligence to demonstrate greater writing competence than pupils whose intelligence quotients fall along the lower ranges of the scale. One might also expect pupils in the upper range of intelligence to possess more interest in writing and consequently a greater desire to write letters than pupils of less intelligence. The question remains, of course, are these hypotheses tenable?

Purposes. The present study attempted to assess the degree of the relationship existing between: (1) pupil intelligence and competence in writing letters, (2) intelligence and the desire to write, (3) pupil sex and desire to write, (4) pupil intelligence and handwriting ability and, (5) pupil sex and handwriting ability.

Procedure. The study involved eighty-seven pupils whose ages were eight and nine. These pupils were enrolled in grade four of a public elementary school in Metropolitan Philadelphia. The subjects ranged in intelligence from an I.Q. of 82 to 135.

Letter-Writing is seldom if ever taught formally before fourth grade. Such was the case in the school from which the selection was taken, and even then it was taught during the latter part of the year. The subjects surveyed therefore, had had no formal instruction in letter-writing nor had they written letters in the classroom during the year.

The teachers participating in the study administered a short written questionnaire to the pupils on the same morning in October, 1960. The questionnaire read as follows: "We would like to know more about the way boys and girls feel about writing letters. Would you please

answer the following questions as truthfully as you can?" (1) Do you like to write letters? (2) If you do, please tell briefly why you like to write them. (3) About how many letters do you write during a school year? (4) How many, if any, do you write outside of school? (5) If you do not like to write letters, would you tell why you do not. (6) Please use a sheet of paper to write a letter to some person or business of your choice. Attach your letter to this questionnaire.

Pupils were given sufficient time to complete the questionnaire and write the letter. The teachers did not help nor rush them, but merely explained the assignment, passed out paper and collected the materials at the end of the allotted time.

Data gathered readily revealed pupil competence in letter-writing form and content. The form of the letter was scaled and graded: very good, good, average, low average and poor. If a pupil used proper punctuation, paragraphing, and put the parts of the letter in the proper position, he received a grade of very good. Those students who omitted parts of the letter were consequently graded lower, as shown in Table I.

The content of the letter was also graded on a five-point scale. If the letter possessed good ideas, clearly expressed, and was written in an interesting style, it received a score of very good. The rest of the letters were scaled downward to those completely devoid of ideas and interests.

Handwriting was marked good, if legible and poor if difficult to read. Intelligence scores were obtained from the official school records.

Findings. In the present study the pupils of higher intelligence, 110 to 135, wrote the most interesting and understandable letters. Most of the letters were of the friendly type, though some pupils among those with the highest intelligence quotients wrote business letters, ordering items of personal interest. It was interesting to see that their letters followed the form currently used in business letters.

A slightly greater proportion of the pupils in the 110 to 135 intelligence bracket than from the average and lower intelligence groups, reported that they liked to write letters. The "brighter" pupils gave many reasons for wanting to write. The following are the most common ones: (1) to keep in contact with friends and relatives far away, (2) to pass time in an interesting manner, (3) just for fun, (4) to improve handwriting and, (5) for sending things and receiving mail.

In general the handwriting of the pupils involved was of good quality. There were, however, twenty-six pupils who needed improvement in the formation of letters and spacing. Some of the girls wrote more legibly than the boys, but this number was not appreciable.

Conclusions. With no formal instruction in letter-writing, those pupils of high intelligence wrote letters of greater interest, used correct form with greater frequency, and in general, wrote more legibly than did their colleagues of average and low intelligence. Although the majority of pupils, 77 out of 87, indicated they liked to write letters, the highest proportion expressing a desire to write came from the "bright" group. The reasons given by these pupils for wanting to write were both reasonable and mature.

I. Q. SCORE	Desire to Write				Content and Form										Legibility			
	Boys		Girls		Boys					Girls					Boys		Girls	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	L.A.	V.G.	G.	A.	P.	L.A.	V.G.	G.	A.	P.	G.	P.	G.	P.
110-135	15	2	17	1	2	0	5	3	7	3	5	3	4	2	13	4	14	5
90-109	17	5	18	0	6	2	1	2	11	7	3	2	2	5	14	7	15	4
80- 89	3	2	7	0	1	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	1	2	1	4	4	2
TOTAL	35	9	42	1	9	2	6	5	22	14	8	5	7	9	28	15	33	11

Intelligence, Writing Ability, and Desire to Write
Table I

Ratings of 87 Fourth Grade Pupils with Regard to

Girls appear to have a stronger desire to write than boys. In fact, only one girl out of 43 voiced no writing desire. It is possible, of course, that girls (especially young ones) have a greater desire to please than do boys. It is possible that all the subjects of this study were influenced by what they perceived the teacher would consider an acceptable answer, but the problem of obtaining honest answers is one peculiar to all self-reporting devices.

What about sex and handwriting? The results of this survey seem to reaffirm what elementary school teachers already know, namely, that girls write more legibly than boys.

A final conclusion and perhaps the most important one that can be drawn from an investigation such as this, is that we cannot expect all pupils to perform equally well in writing letters. We must diagnose interests and abilities carefully and work toward developing writing competence that is consistent with the variables of sex and intelligence.

Improving the Administration of Off-Campus Student Teaching

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Introduction

With the desire to improve the administration of the off-campus student teaching program at Park College, Parkville, Missouri, the writer undertook a study¹ of administrative policies and practices related to off-campus elementary student teaching in Missouri. The administrative aspects selected for consideration were: (1) policy development, (2) contractual relationships, (3) institutional control, (4) financial arrangements, (5) transportation considerations, (6) in-service training of cooperating school system personnel, and (7) follow-up services for graduates.

Procedure

The literature and research studies concerned with the administration of the off-campus program of student teaching were carefully reviewed. From 95 principles revealed in the literature and research studies, 20 were formulated; that is, they were put in systematic form and supported by written statements from various educators and authorities on student teaching.

A ballot form of the principles was presented to 15 selected jurors. Seventeen principles were justified by 13 jurors and constituted a set of professional criteria. The aspect of transportation considerations was not considered, since principles pertaining to that aspect were not justified.

A questionnaire, based on the 17 professional criteria, was then

¹ Chabe, Alexander M., *An Analysis of Administrative Policies and Practices Related to Off-Campus Student Teaching in Missouri*, Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1959, 357 pp.

prepared. After refinement and validation through a pilot study, the questionnaire was sent to 23 Missouri institutions. Replies were received from all 23 institutions for a 100 percent return. However, only 20 institutions offered an off-campus program of elementary student teaching. Therefore, the results of the study were based on questionnaire responses from 20, or 100 percent, of the institutions which had a program of off-campus elementary student teaching.

To confirm the reliability of the questionnaire data, interviews were conducted with the director of elementary student teaching in five selected Missouri institutions.

Using five levels of implementation, the administrative practice at Park College and in the Missouri institutions was appraised. Those levels of implementation and their equivalent percentage ranges arbitrarily adopted were: (1) fully implemented, 100 percent, (2) substantially implemented, 99 to 66 percent, (3) moderately implemented, 65 to 34 percent, (4) partially implemented, 33 to one percent, and (5) not implemented, zero percent.

Major Findings

The major findings related to administrative practice were as follows:

1. In 17, or 85 percent, of the institutions, written policy statements governed the operation of the off-campus elementary student teaching program.

2. In 12, or 60 percent, of the institutions, there was a verbal understanding or consent existing between the institution and the cooperating school system. There was an official letter of recognition existing between the institution and cooperating school system in six, or 30 percent, of the institutions; a written contractual agreement existing in five, or 25 percent; and a written memorandum between the institution and cooperating school system in three, or 15 percent, of the institutions.

3. Making classroom visits to the student teacher and holding conferences with the student teacher and cooperating school personnel were methods of supervising the cooperating school experiences of the elementary student teacher in all of the 20 institutions.

4. From one through four supervisory visits were made to an ele-

mentary student teacher throughout the period of off-campus elementary student teaching in 11, or 55 percent, of the institutions; from five through nine such visits in six, or 30 percent; from 10 through 14 in two, or 10 percent; and 15 or more in one, or five percent, of the institutions.

5. No institutional budgetary allocation was made to the off-campus elementary student teaching program in 13, or 65 percent, of the institutions.

6. In 16, or 80 percent, of the institutions, the cooperating teachers were not remunerated for services rendered to the off-campus elementary student teaching program.

7. No program of in-service training of cooperating school system personnel was provided in 14, or 73.7 percent of the institutions reporting.

8. In five, or 100 percent, of the institutions reporting, individual conferences or consultations were a type of in-service training activity held. Group conferences or meetings were another type of in-service training activity held in three, or 60 percent, of the institutions reporting.

9. In 10, or 50 percent, of the institutions, a program of follow-up services for graduates who were former elementary student teachers was provided.

Conclusions and Implications

From an analysis of the data, the following conclusions and implications were drawn:

1. The formulation of written objectives, the development of plans or policies, and the evaluation of the student teaching program were generally not a cooperative endeavor involving teacher education institution personnel, cooperating school system personnel, and student teachers.

2. The institutions should explore the possibility of drawing up, for an agreed period, a comprehensive written contractual agreement or a memorandum with the cooperating school system.

3. The institutions had enough control in the cooperating school to

supervise, in a general way, the experiences of the elementary student teacher.

4. The study indicated the desirability of an increase in the number of supervisory visits to be made to an elementary student teacher.

5. The practice of accepting the cooperating teacher as a member of both the public school and the teacher education institution faculties had not been implemented.

6. Generally, cooperating teachers were granted recognition of some type for their services rendered to the student teaching program.

7. Generally, the need and value of an institutional budgetary allocation to the student teaching program were not recognized.

8. Institutions generally needed to be more cognizant of the value and importance of remunerating cooperating teachers for services rendered to the student teaching program.

9. The institutions needed to pay increased attention to the values of a program of in-service training of cooperating school system personnel which also provided various types of in-service training activities.

10. The value of providing a program of follow-up services for graduates who were former elementary student teachers was recognized by 50 percent of the institutions.

11. Institutions generally were cognizant of the value of appraising the student teaching program through follow-up study of the success of its graduates in subsequent field positions.

12. Many of the 17 professional criteria needed fuller implementation, both at Park College and in the 19 Missouri teacher education institutions.

Recommendations:

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made for the improvement or development of the off-campus elementary student teaching program in the teacher education institutions studied:

1. A council on student teaching should be organized and should include in its membership the student teaching staff, cooperating teachers, administrators and/or supervisors of the cooperating school sys-

tem, other members of the education faculty, members of the academic faculty, and student teachers.

2. A comprehensive written contractual agreement with the cooperating school system should exist for an agreed period and should be renewed only if mutually satisfactory relationships exist in the conduct of student teaching.

3. Granting expense money to cooperating teachers for regional and state conferences on student teaching, and paying professional membership dues to the Association for Student Teaching, should be considered by the institutions.

4. Institutions should seek to obtain sufficient institutional budgetary support for the student teaching program.

5. Cooperating teachers serving Missouri institutions should be remunerated on an equitable and comparable basis of payment.

6. In cooperation with officials of the cooperating school system, institutions should regularly conduct workshops and organize study groups concerned with the student teaching program and its procedures and problems.

7. Workshop and study group membership should include the student teaching staff, cooperating teachers, administrators and/or supervisors of the cooperating school system, other members of the education faculty, members of the academic faculty, and student teachers.

8. The cost of in-service training of cooperating school system personnel should be mutually shared with the cooperating school system.

9. Institutions should develop an organized and comprehensive program of follow-up, continuing from one to two years after the graduation of the former elementary student teacher.

10. The institution should provide on-the-job assistance to the graduate through visitation, if possible, to the employing school.

A Social Science Field Trip Program

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Educators have long been cognizant of the limitations of confining all teaching to the classroom. In subject matter areas such as social science the shortcomings of an approach that involves no first-hand utilization of the resources of the outside world are particularly pronounced.

Special problems are encountered at the secondary and college level, however, in the effective utilization of field trips. One of the problems is the difficulty of finding adequate blocks of time. Few outside experiences are feasible which can be confined to a single class period. A great many require a full day; and as a consequence students must be excused from several other classes when an instructor plans such an activity for his class.

Those instructors whose subjects do not lend themselves so well to field trips, along with those whose educational outlook makes them skeptical about their worth, may be particularly disconcerted at having their classes cancelled to accommodate someone else's trip. At the college level one sometimes hears the accusation that a cavalier attitude toward attending classes is engendered by the condoning of frequent field trip absences.

At Jersey City State College an experimental program for senior social science majors was recently undertaken which involved the setting aside of one day per week exclusively for field trips. In this way the aforementioned difficulty was eliminated.

The trips were designed to provide supplementary insights into all of the social science areas. Time was set aside to give students background information about places they were to visit, as well as to permit discussion of what was seen on the previous trip. Preparation for trips also involved required and suggested reading.

The program was unique, to the best of the writer's knowledge, in being a required part of the program for the preparation of high school social science teachers. It was not the intention that it should replace

the utilization of appropriate field trips in existing courses. It was felt, however, that a desirable range of such experiences might best be obtained through the inauguration of a social science field trip program.

In a location such as the metropolitan New York area the problem of the organizer of a series of such field trips is not one of locating enough sites deserving first-hand observation; it is one of selecting from among many intriguing possibilities. Several criteria influenced the choice of field trips in the Jersey City College program. Pre-eminent was the concern that the experience make a vital contribution to the student's comprehension of a significant aspect of social science. A secondary determinant was the desire to maintain some sort of balance in the coverage given to the respective social science disciplines.

Considerations of proximity entered into the inclusion of certain spots in our itinerary; it seemed wise, for example, to pay a visit to the nearby Vanderbilt Mansion after having traveled one hundred miles for the primary purpose of seeing the Home and Library of Franklin D. Roosevelt at Hyde Park. Care was given, too, not to duplicate trips that were customarily taken to enrich existing courses.

In planning this field trip series it seemed desirable to give preference to visits to spots that students would not be able to visit so readily as individuals. This focused attention upon such travel goals as social agencies, state institutions, and private enterprises of particular social significance. It was thought that such museums as were included on the itineraries might most profitably be some of the less well-known ones, which are often rich in useful materials. Our seniors were all quite familiar with the American Museum of Natural History in New York City; until our visit only a couple had been across the street to view the rich resources of the New York Historical Society, however.

Care was taken, too, that the visual aspects of the trip were sufficiently rewarding to justify the undertaking. When it is the speakers who provide all of the worthwhile insights it seems far more expedient to bring them to the class, rather than the other way around.

It was early decided that this series would avoid the common tendency to crowd an excessive number of stops into a field trip day. The day is then a clock dominated one; a kaleidoscope of rather superficial impressions typically results. The effect is reminiscent of the whirl-

wind two week tours of Europe that allot a morning to Florence, an afternoon to Venice, and cover The Netherlands between planes.

On the Jersey City State College field trips an effort was made to keep regimentation to a minimum. To accommodate individual differences in interest students were, whenever feasible, permitted to explore the places visited individually. Such an arrangement was particularly desirable at a place such as the Roosevelt Library, where there is a diverse assortment of materials on display, and attendants are available to answer questions.

A modified version of this procedure was followed on the visit to the New York Historical Society. Here a member of the staff gave an orientation talk on the services and possessions of the Society, after which he took the group on a quick tour of the premises, so as to provide a general acquaintance with the displays. Students were then free to return to rooms of particular interest to them.

It also seemed desirable, insofar as possible, to have the day's activities center around one core of interest, rather than have visits to several locations with no meaningful relationship. For example, "housing" was the subject investigated on one of our trips; "penal institutions" on another; and "mass production industries" on a third.

Occasionally the proximity of a major point of interest not related to the subject being investigated warranted the suspension of this general principle. The location of the Stock Exchange was such that it was included on what was essentially a walking tour of the historic spots of lower Manhattan.

A couple of decades ago personnel pressed into service to act as guides for groups visiting businesses or industries often had few qualifications and little inclination toward assuming this role. In the present public relations minded era, however, highly trained guides, eager to be of service, are much more typical. Increasingly private firms as well as public agencies are not only willing to have student visitors, but are eager to have the opportunity to educate the public.

The very fact that some of the spokesmen encountered on a field trip will present a partisan view of the subject being investigated places certain obligations upon the instructor. Contrasting viewpoints and interpretations should be presented or elicited through discussion in follow-

up sessions. The one-sided presentation can be utilized to sharpen the power of critical judgment of the student.

It was my experience that the social scientist must stress to the representative in a manufacturing enterprise the primary concerns of his course in order to get the sort of coverage desired. There is a tendency for the standard presentation to be preoccupied with the technological achievements of the enterprise (cars manufactured per hour, etc.), to the exclusion of other matters of interest to the social scientist. Without advance notice spokesmen are often unprepared to answer questions pertaining to plant-community relations, the firm's bureaucratic structure, and such subjects.

When it is possible it is well to inform speakers and guides of the extent of previous study of the subject by the class, as well as of the topic or topics whose discussion would be of greatest value. Without any guidance officials are likely to present more or less standardized speeches which they have perfected for delivery to general audiences. I have had the misfortune of having a representative from a state anti-discrimination agency (not New Jersey's) give a routine brotherhood talk to a group of advanced sociology students, who had spent the better part of a semester studying inter-group relations. Adequate communication beforehand can usually prevent such unrewarding episodes.

The opportunity to question individuals not merely as an incidental accompaniment to a conducted tour, but in an unhurried situation, is often highly desirable. Here more general and basic questions pertaining to the relationship between the organization and society can be explored.

Several of the most stimulating sessions of the Jersey City State College field trip series were of this type. An official of a leading firm involved in the manufacture of drugs, for example, gave answers to searching questions pertaining to the pricing of their products, as well as to queries regarding the social responsibilities of the drug industry. While all students were not convinced by the explanation given—nor were they supposed to be—they certainly obtained a better understanding of the viewpoint of the manufacturer of drugs.

A comparable opportunity was presented on the trip devoted to the

Port of New York Authority. At the time of our visit several aspects of the agency's operation were being questioned by a congressional investigating committee. The Port Authority representative who accompanied us on the hour and a half drive from the Port of Newark to the International Airport at Idlewild effectively utilized the time to answer questions stimulated by this inquiry.

The question and answer session can be much more stimulating and rewarding when students have done preliminary work in familiarizing themselves about the subject of the trip. Time is then not wasted in the asking of elementary questions, the answers to which are readily available from other sources.

Diligent planning by the instructor can minimize but not eliminate the greater uncertainties of the field trip as contrasted with the classroom learning experience. Unanticipated delays in transit can raise havoc with the most meticulously calculated schedule. A planned stop, perhaps arranged only after considerable effort, may have to be eliminated from the day's program. There are obvious shortcomings to the solution of allowing a generous "cushion" of excess travel time.

Sometimes the success of the trip is heavily dependent upon the effectiveness of interpretations given by persons quite unknown to the instructor. These efforts, upon occasion, turn out to be seriously deficient. Not all those who can successfully fulfill their roles in an organization can meaningfully explain the organization's operation to others.

The instructor who is most insistent upon maximum control over the learning situation will be understandably reluctant to contend with the greater uncertainties of life outside the classroom. To the more adventurous, however, field trips rapidly become an essential part of their course offerings. It would seem desirable that those planning to be teachers have the fullest opportunity to learn of the contributions that field trips can make to the enrichment of courses and the stimulation of students.

Certain Characteristics of Under-achievers and Over-achievers

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Among educators and laymen a great deal of emphasis has been placed on meeting the individual needs of children. Interest in this problem is not of recent origin, but the problem has been intensified in recent years because of world conditions. Numerous approaches have been taken in studying the various intellectual ability groups and whether the curriculum, materials, and teaching methods are designed in favor of, or more effective with, a particular intellectual ability group.

However, of equal importance is the problem of the under-achiever and over-achiever. This problem is not limited to a particular intellectual ability group but is found within all ability levels. Evidence indicates conclusively that factors other than intellectual ability are associated with successful academic achievement.

The purpose of this study was to determine some of the characteristics of under-achievers and over-achievers and, if possible, to clarify any misconceptions regarding conditions which may be influential in bringing about under-achievement or over-achievement.

The population from which the subjects were taken consisted of 1,773 sixth-grade children from a large city school system in the Southwest. Data obtained on each subject consisted of the chronological age (CA), intelligence quotient (IQ), identity of sex, socio-economic status (SES), scholastic achievement, and information concerning the occupation of the mother. Chronological age, IQ, and identity of sex were obtained from the profile of the *California Test of Mental Maturity* (CTMM). Occupation of the mother and the SES were established by use of the *Questionnaire By Which Socio-economic Information was Secured from Parents* (1). Scholastic achievement was measured by the

California Achievement Test (CAT), Elementary Battery. Actual grade placement was 6.1 when the CAT was administered.

To determine under-achievers and over-achievers the students' raw scores obtained on the CTMM and the CAT were converted to T scores. The under-achiever was one whose T score for the raw score obtained on the CAT was 10 or more points below the T score derived from the raw score on the CTMM and the over-achiever was one who fell correspondingly above. This procedure resulted in 111 students being classified as under-achievers and 116 as over-achievers.

Results

UNDER-ACHIEVERS.—Among the 111 under-achievers it was found that 75 students or 68% were boys and 36 students or 32% were girls. Mean IQ was 113.5 for the boys, 116.3 for the girls, and 114.4 for the entire group. The mean grade placement score for scholastic achievement was 5.1 for the boys, 5.5 for the girls, and 5.2 for the entire group of under-achievers. Mean CA in months for the boys was 135.3, 136.0 for the girls, and 135.5 for the entire group. In addition, it was noted that among the 111 mothers of the under-achievers 41 were working outside the home (25 of the boys' mothers and 16 of the girls' mothers).

The boys were distributed among the three socio-economic status groups as follows: 17 in the upper SES group, 54 in the middle SES group, and 4 in the lower SES group. Among the girls 13 were in the upper SES group, 17 in the middle SES group, and 6 in the lower SES group. The entire group of under-achievers was distributed as follows: 30 in the upper SES group, 71 in the middle SES group, and 10 in the lower SES group.

Analysis of data for the under-achievers is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Data for Under-achievers

	<i>Subjects</i>		<i>IQ</i> <i>Mean</i>	<i>Grade</i> <i>Placement</i> <i>Mean</i>	<i>CA in mos.</i> <i>Mean</i>	<i>Working</i> <i>Mothers</i> <i>No.</i>	<i>Socio-economic Status</i>		
	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>					<i>Upper</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Lower</i>
Boys	75	68	113.5	5.07	135.3	25	17	54	4
Girls	36	32	116.3	5.50	136.0	16	13	17	6
Total	111	100	114.4	5.21	135.5	41	30	71	10

OVER-ACHIEVERS.—Among the 116 over-achievers 35 students or 30% were boys and 81 students or 70% were girls. The mean IQ for the boys was 95.6, for the girls 95.1, and 95.3 for the group. Mean grade placement score for scholastic achievement was 6.6 for the boys, 6.5 for the girls, and 6.5 for all of the over-achievers. Mean CA in months was 141.2 for the boys, 140.1 for the girls, and 140.5 for the group. Of the 116 over-achievers 44 of their mothers were found to be working outside the home (18 of the boys' mothers and 26 of the girls' mothers).

The distribution of over-achieving boys among the three socio-economic status groups was as follows: 6 in the upper SES group, 22 in the middle SES group, and 7 in the lower SES group. Of the girls there were 22 in the upper SES group, 35 in the middle SES group, and 24 in the lower SES group. The distribution of the entire group of over-achievers was as follows: 28 in the upper SES group, 57 in the middle SES group, and 31 in the lower SES group. Table 2 presents the data for the over-achieving group.

Table 2
Data for Over-achievers

	<i>Subjects</i>		<i>IQ</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>CA in mos.</i>	<i>Working</i>	<i>Socio-economic Status</i>		
	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Placement Mean</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Mothers No.</i>	<i>Upper</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Lower</i>
Boys	35	30	95.7	6.6	141.2	18	6	22	7
Girls	81	70	95.1	6.5	140.1	26	22	35	24
Total	116	100	95.3	6.5	140.5	44	28	57	31

Through inspection of the data on the under-achievers and over-achievers wide differences were noted between the mean CA's and IQ's. To determine whether these differences were significant, *t* tests were computed. When the mean CA's were compared between the under-achievers and over-achievers a *t* value of 8.01 was obtained which is significant at the .05 level. Also, a *t* test was computed between the mean IQ's of the two groups. The obtained *t* value was 10.00 and this also is significant at the .05 level. Data for the statistical tests are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Analysis of Data between Under-achievers and Over-achievers

	<i>Means</i>		<i>Mean Diff.</i>	<i>SE Diff.</i>	<i>t ratio</i>
	<i>Under-achievers</i>	<i>Over-achievers</i>			
CA in months	135.5	140.5	5.00	.624	8.01*
IQ	114.4	95.3	19.10	1.91	10.00*

* Significant at the .05 level.

Conclusions

From the results of this investigation the following conclusions were made:

1. The number of over-achievers and under-achievers is almost equal with each group composing approximately 6% of the population from which the subjects were taken.
2. Boys outnumber the girls 2 to 1 within the under-achieving group.
3. Girls outnumber the boys more than 2 to 1 within the over-achieving group.
4. The under-achievers are primarily those who are the more capable student, whereas, the over-achievers are primarily those who are slightly below average. This is reflected by a difference of 19 points in the mean IQ's for the two groups with the mean IQ for the under-achievers being the higher.
5. The under-achievers are not only achieving below what they are capable of achieving, but are almost one year below actual grade placement, whereas, the over-achievers are achieving four months above actual grade placement although their mean IQ is considerably below the under-achievers.
6. The difference in CA is significant with the over-achievers being 5 months older than the under-achievers. This is not meant to imply that one group is either underage or overage, but simply that there is a significant difference.
7. The number of working mothers of the children in the two groups is nearly equal. This indicates that the working status of the mother does not appear to be a factor which is associated with success or lack of success in academic achievement.

8. The middle SES group contributes a larger number of under-achievers and over-achievers than the upper and lower SES groups. This is to be expected, in that, the middle SES group makes up a larger segment of the population. In the over-achieving group the upper and lower SES groups contribute a proportionate number to the group. However, in the under-achieving group, the upper SES group contributes 3 times the number contributed by the lower SES group.

Summary

In summary we can conclude that under-achievement and over-achievement are not peculiar to any one socio-economic status level. Boys seem to contribute to a greater amount of under-achievement and a lesser amount of over-achievement than girls. We also find that it is the more able student who is apt to be under-achieving and not only are the under-achievers not achieving to the level that they are capable of achieving, but are also achieving considerably below grade level.

References

Eells, Kenneth, *et al. Intelligence and Cultural Differences*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1951.

Try-Out Teaching in Secondary Methods Courses

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Student teaching, normally taken during the senior year in college, is considered to be the final step in professional preparation. This most vital course in the teacher-training program, the so-called internship which provides the crucial test for the prospective teacher, is only offered when the student is about to finish his college education. This procedure appears to be quite logical since the basic education courses—educational psychology, principles, and methods—must first be studied in order to provide the necessary background for student teaching. Unfortunately, there is little to be done if one discovers that he either dislikes or is unsuccessful at student teaching after completing four years of college. It is too late to change a career if this experience tells the tragic story of choosing the wrong occupation.

It is true that to determine potential teacher failures any earlier than the senior year is exceedingly difficult. Obviously students could have received high marks in other education courses only to learn later that they are not and can not be successful at classroom teaching. Even the important practice of observing regular teachers at work is not enough to tell the student what teaching would be like for him. Offering student teaching sooner is not practical as it should normally occur after most course work is terminated.

On the other hand, perhaps something can be done about giving juniors and possibly sophomores, the opportunity to do “try-out” teaching in their general and special methods classes. Such a procedure would not become a crystal ball for professors of education to discover misfits any earlier, but rather it would enable misfits to discover themselves. At least it permits prospective teachers to become acquainted with actual teaching before their senior year. “Try-out”

teaching appears to offer much to the student, not only as a training activity, but also as a teaching device to illustrate observation and evaluation.

The writer has experimented with these ideas by devoting the latter part of his one-semester secondary methods course to teaching of this type.

Each student was asked to plan and to teach a fifteen-minute lesson in his field. A warning was given that since the time allotted for each lesson was brief the topic selected had to be quite narrow. He could consider the class before him as an average high school group and use whatever resources and techniques that he chose. Questions by the teacher and the class could be asked, board work requested, and assignments made. The class was to be informed of the topic, grade level, and necessary background before the lesson began. The teacher was to turn in a detailed lesson plan and an outline of the larger daily and weekly plan of which it was a part. Three such "try-out" lessons were planned for a single hour, and students were asked to sign up for specified dates.

At this point a discussion took place to determine whether a class evaluation of the instruction would be beneficial, and if so, what criteria should be used to evaluate teaching of this nature. An evaluation was thought to be valuable, and eight or ten criteria were decided upon. The class was then asked to evaluate each teacher using these criteria with the provision that the rating would be done anonymously in writing and then turned over to the student for his personal use. These last steps were considered necessary both to save time and to satisfy the desires of fellow students reluctant to engage in oral criticisms. The professor then announced that he would briefly discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each lesson for the benefit of the teacher and class, and that a mark would be assigned in a conference.

Reactions to "try-out" teaching were quite favorable. Though many were aware that the experience was time consuming, they desired to have it more often. Others believed that shorter, more frequent opportunities would have been more beneficial. However, most agreed that they profited from the teaching, the student evaluations, and the professor's analysis.

It is not difficult to find criticisms of "try-out" teaching. Obviously fifteen minutes is not long enough to develop a satisfactory lesson. This limitation leads to a natural tendency to include too much material or to make the topic too broad. It is admitted that the situation is not typical in as much as the audience is a college class of sympathetic listeners being taught under the most favorable circumstances. Furthermore, one might claim that there is ample opportunity for excessive pre-planning, that the class does not know how to evaluate properly, and that "try-out" teaching infringes upon lecture time.

However, a brief, reasonable defense can deal with most charges. It is simply this—at this stage in his training the student should be placed in the most favorable situation in which to teach and have all the time he needs in which to prepare.

It is true that "try-out" teaching confines lectures on principles and methods to the first half of the semester, but nevertheless, ample time could be devoted to readings and to written work throughout. In addition, the professor's evaluation would provide much essential information.

Again, student evaluation of instructors is known to be quite reliable and should be more so here since college students are involved. As an introduction to the subject of evaluation and as an explanation of its function in the classroom, the role of the college supervisor of student teaching was discussed. Later the class was asked to evaluate the course and the instruction received according to a rating scale. This opportunity to evaluate teaching was discussed with the intention of encouraging the students to have their own pupils rate them both at the completion of student teaching and as they finish each year later on in their careers.

Just what can be evaluated in such brief lessons? Poise, voice, enthusiasm, preparation, methodology, organization, visual contact, questioning procedure, and similar points. Obviously potential failures can not be determined by merely this one observation. However, it is hoped that prospective teachers, by a process of self-evaluation and of being aware of their inner feelings, might learn whether or not they enjoy standing before classes and teaching lessons. If given enough opportunities to discover this before the senior year, students who find

the experience distasteful might be able to select another curriculum. Even if this were not possible they would have had contact with actual teaching much earlier in their college career than is usual.

“Try-out” teaching can do much toward reducing the fear common to student teachers about to have their first experience in the classroom. It emphasizes practicality in our education courses and is particularly valuable in special methods classes due to the similar backgrounds of the members. Future teachers are able to put theory into practice as they go along rather than at the end of their professional training.

Comenius Considers Discipline

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Discipline is perhaps the most perennial topic of discussion in all educational literature. Contributors to discussions on discipline range from psychologists to mothers who raised ten children and who therefore qualify as experts in this area. What is unknown to many, however, is that perhaps the finest insight into the nature of discipline was presented over three hundred years ago by a man who is nearly forgotten in modern educational textbooks, John Amos Comenius.

History has been grossly unfair to this perspicacious man. A prolific writer, a scholar, and a theologian, Comenius suffered persecutions, banishments, and losses severe enough to break even the strongest man. Yet his whole life was devoted to improving conditions for his fellow man. Nowhere does he speak more eloquently than in his didactic writings.

Unquestionably, many of Comenius's generalizations on human nature are naïve by today's sophisticated standards. Deducing from his observations of nature and the Scriptures, Comenius attempted to formulate an unassailable theory of human nature. Strangely enough, many of the conclusions he arrived at in his mystical fashion are still being "rediscovered" in modern pedagogical circles.

One area in which Comenius especially anticipated modern educational practice was school discipline. In a manner unlike the traditional practices in Europe and in colonial America, Comenius suggested that sound discipline was more than a matter of keeping order, but was actually a sound basis of an intellectual process.

"A school without discipline," said Comenius, "is like a mill without water. . . . If you withdraw the water from a mill, it stops. . . . In the same way, if you deprive a school of discipline, you take away . . . (a) motive power."¹

¹ M. W. Keatinge (trans.), *The Great Didactic of John Amos Comenius* (London: Adam and Charles Black, 1896), p. 401.

But discipline, as Comenius envisioned it, implied more than mere servile obedience to arbitrary rules of conduct. The discipline Comenius advocated was essentially intellectual.

It must not be thought, however, that we wish our schools to resound with shrieks and with blows. What we demand is vigilance and attention on the part of the master and of the pupils. For discipline is nothing but an unfailing method by which we make our scholars, scholars in reality.

. . . It is, therefore, . . . advisable that the educator of youth know its object, its subject-matter, and the various forms it may assume.²

It can be seen that sound discipline is a jointly held responsibility. On one hand the instructor has a responsibility to his students to provide sound instruction; on the other hand the students have a responsibility to respond appropriately to the instructor. (It is interesting to speculate how many discipline problems that arise today have their origin in poor instruction.)

“Punishment” is sometimes synonomously (and mistakenly) used in place of “discipline.” The role of punishment as a part of the larger framework of discipline was examined by Comenius.

“. . . Punishment should be employed towards those who err,” he stated.

But it is not because they have erred that they should be punished (for what has been done cannot be undone), but in order that they may not err again in the future. Discipline should therefore be free from personal elements, such as anger or dislike, and should be exercised with such frankness and sincerity of purpose, that even the pupils may feel that the action taken is for their good, and that those set over them are but exercising parental authority.³

In a period when school houses were characterized as “slaughter-houses of the young,” when Montaigne complained about “. . . the outcries of boys under execution, with the thundering noises of their pedagogues drunk with fury,” and when Luther received fifteen beatings in one day, any mild form of discipline was regarded as a kind of heresy. It was Comenius again who pointed out that . . .

. . . No discipline of a severe kind should be exercised in connection with

² *Ibid.*

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 401-2.

studies or literary exercises. . . . Studies, if they are properly organised, form in themselves ■ sufficient attraction, and entice all . . . by their inherent pleasantness. If this be not the case, the fault lies, not with the pupil, but with the master ⁴

Comenius was not content to merely point out existing weaknesses in the schools of his day. In his didactic writings he proposed methods by which many of the existing evils could be remedied. In this sense he speaks for us today.

In dealing with recalcitrant students, for example, he said, “. . . Sometimes a few severe words or a reprimand before the whole class is very efficacious, while sometimes a little praise bestowed on the others has a great effect.”⁵

To bring out the best from within the student, the schoolmaster was advised to follow a certain procedure.

(1) He should give them frequent examples of the conduct that they should try to imitate, and should point to himself as a living example. . . .

(2) He may employ advice, exhortation, and sometimes blame, but should take great care to make his motive clear and to show unmistakably that his actions are based on paternal affection, and are destined to build up the character of his pupils and not crush them. . . .

(3) Finally, if some characters are unaffected by gentle methods, recourse must be had to more violent ones, and every means should be tried before the pupil is pronounced impossible to teach. . . .⁶

Now there certainly isn't anything excitingly new in these directions toward sound discipline. The principles Comenius enunciated are, or should be, in the repertory of every practicing teacher today. What, then, can be gained by rustling old bones, or uncovering those dusty old manuscripts of a rustic Moravian scholar?

In the first place, an examination of these tenets pronounced over three hundred years ago reveals only too clearly how slow educators are in implementing pedagogical theory. Then, too, the question might be raised concerning whether or not there is anything genuinely new in educational theory. Paying homage to a nearly forgotten educator is another legitimate reason for reviving the memories of the man and

⁴ *Ibid.*

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 402-3.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 404.

his teachings. But perhaps the most valid reason for discussing one small feature of Comenius's extensive writings is the message it holds for us today. What better justification for discipline than this can be given: "The object of discipline should be to stir us up to revere God, to assist our neighbors, and to perform the labours and duties of life with alacrity"?⁷

⁷ Keatinge, *op. cit.*, p. 403.

PEABODY BIMONTHLY BOOKNOTES

Selected Professional and Cultural Books for a Teacher's Library

JULY, 1961

Booknotes Committee: Susan B. Riley, William A. FitzGerald, and Norman Frost, Chairman.

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Art

VITRUVIUS, POLLIO. *Ten Books on Architecture*. Dover, 1960. 331p. \$2.00.

One of the fathers of architectural eclecticism, Vitruvius nevertheless gives us ■ penetrating view of Greek and Roman esthetics and logic in construction, design and a view toward function, lending some still exciting advice to architects.

Children's Literature

ADLER, IRVING AND RUTH. *Shadows*. John Day, 1961. 48p. \$2.00.

An intriguing book about light and shadow. Will provide excellent practice material for middle-graders in translating words into action and the observations of actions into words.

ADLER, IRVING AND RUTH. *Story of a Nail*. John Day, 1961. 48p. \$2.00.

Very readable account of the history, manufacture, and uses of nails. For the intermediate grades.

ALMEDINGEN, MARTHA. *Young Pavlova*. Roy, 1961. 138p. \$3.00.

This biography of Anna Pavlova, the great ballet dancer, is one of the most interesting of the Famous Childhood Series. Explains

her burning desire to dance, her unfortunate childhood and her reward for hard work and talent. Young girls will be happy to read of another little girl who worked hard and became the queen of Ballerinas.

ARCHIBALD, JOSEPH. *Jet Flier*. Longmans, 1961. 182p. \$2.95.

Harry Burnell, captain of a commercial jet airlines, loses part of his landing gear and is faced with a dangerous landing at Idlewild. He feels the great responsibility for the people aboard his ship ■ he relives his years of flying in war and peace. Details of both military and commercial pilot training makes this an excellent aviation adventure for young boys.

ARMSTRONG, RICHARD. *Ship Afire*. John Day, 1961. 188p. \$3.50.

An exciting story of an oil tanker, Cape Wrath, which dropped out of the convoy for repairs, later returned to the fleet, was shelled by enemy battleship and abandoned. Shows the courage of ■ young apprentice seaman who tried to help the survivors. Boys who enjoy sea stories will find this one filled with thrilling episodes of action at sea.

BANET, DORIS. *Flicker: The Discontented Firefly*. Denison, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

A well bound, beautifully illustrated story aimed to give information about fireflies at

the primary level. The illustrations are exciting in color, the story dramatic and imaginative. It will need to be read to the very young, but second grade readers will adventure into the story because of the clear type and the brief page arrangement. Recommended.

BANET, DORIS. *Tiny: The Teeny Turtle*. Denison, 1960. unp. \$2.75.

A longer and rather more dramatic story than the others in this series, but it has the same exciting pictures and excellent format. The story is highly imaginative and lacks the information background found in some of the others we have examined. It will appeal to young readers who like a dash of conflict in their reading.

BARKER, DEREK ROLAND. *Story of Ancient Athens*. St. Martins, 1961. 63p. \$2.95.

Readable account of ancient Athens. Stories are organized by topics and are useful as references for students. Glossary adds to usefulness of book.

BARR, CATHRINE. *Hound Dog's Bone*. Walck, 1961. 32p. \$2.25.

Andy gave Hound Dog a nice, juicy bone. Hound Dog didn't know, and Andy didn't know that Russ and Tuss, young foxes, were watching. How they got the bone, and what happened then is really interesting for children about 3 or 4 to 7 years old.

BAUM, LYMAN FRANK. *Wonderful Wizard of Oz*. Dover, 1960. 268p. \$1.45.

This is a wonderfully fine paper back edition of the well known classic for children. There are the pictures in color, by W. W. Denslow, and clear type on good paper. Just the thing for people who are trying to make their book dollars for children's books go as far as possible.

BENTLEY, PHYLLIS. *Young Brontes*. Roy, 1961. 136p. \$3.00.

Gifted children, who are a part of a group and yet aware of their separateness will enjoy this sympathetic biography of the Brontes. The emphasis is on Charlotte but Emily emerges as a partial figure. Phyllis Bentley is so well known it seems regrettable that her book was not brought out in a sturdier edition.

BISHOP, CURTIS. *Playmaker*. Steck, 1960. 200p. \$2.25.

At a small junior college, the coach was surprised to find a new basketball player with such exceptional ability that the school was due to win one conference after another. The problems that arose for the coach as he realized that this clever ball player was wanting to make all the shots himself makes the team over, will interest junior high school sport readers.

BLEEKER, SONIA. *Maya: Indians of Central America*. Morrow, 1961. 160p. \$2.75.

Each of the seven chapters in this account aims to give some aspect of the way of life of this ancient people. The importance of their religion, the beauty of their handwork, the simple experiences of their daily life, the unusual records found in excavations, all has been prepared for upper elementary reading. An interesting subject for this age group, prepared by a popular authority, it should prove a valued contribution to youth collections.

BOYLE, JOYCE. *Adventuring with David*. Abingdon, 1961. 96p. \$2.00.

This story takes David through the experience of adventuring alone through the quiet woods on the hillside where his grandmother has a little summer home. Living in touch with nature for the first time he makes little discoveries every day which will interest young elementary readers—he finds the source of their brook, many animal and bird friends, and how storms occur. A quiet book with enjoyment of nature as its aim.

BRADBURY, BIANCA. *Flood in Still River*. Dial, 1961. 128p. \$2.75.

This book presents a study in a family's adjustment to a new town. Johnnie and his mother are very unhappy because of the attitude of their neighbors. Then the flood comes and they are able to help others in the time of tragedy. In this way they make friends and find happiness in what had seemed to them an impossible situation. Upper elementary reading.

BREETVELD, JIM. *Getting to Know United Nations Crusaders*. Coward McCann, 1961. 64p. \$2.50.

This is UNICEF—its purpose, its work, its contribution to children around the world. The book is a recent addition to the Getting to Know series and will be especially useful to teachers who want pertinent facts expressed in terms which children can understand. Elementary school level. Highly recommended.

BUEHR, WALTER. *Birth of a Liner*. Little, Brown, 1961. 119p. \$3.00.

This well known author has assembled here for the elementary reader an account of the many details involved in the building of a large ship. Beginning with the first idea plan, he explains the building, launching, navigation detail, equipment and entertainment facilities, the shakedown cruise and finally the maiden voyage. Outstanding for a study in this field.

CARSE, ROBERT. *Winter of the Whale*. Putnam, 1961. 160p. \$2.95.

An Indian adventure story, this book is good background study of the times when three Manhansry braves must go out to seek food. They face many problems, times are bad, there has been much summer illness, now the coldest winter in memory is upon them. The three young braves go out to hunt whales, if they fail, the tribe will starve. Authoritative handling.

CATHERALL, ARTHUR. *Dangerous Cargo*. Roy, 1960. 166p. \$3.00.

A sort of British Tom Swift. When an ancient freighter catches fire in the Macassar Straits, Jack Frodsham, eighteen-year-old owner of a salvage tug, and his captain, Husky, hurry to the rescue, thereby entangling themselves in a gun running plot and thus meeting their perennial enemies. The adventure features clean living, the white man's burden, and near death by drowning in every chapter. Junior high boys will love it.

CHESTER, MICHAEL. *Let's Go to a Rocket Base*. Putnam, 1961. 48p. \$1.95.

Useful reference book for intermediate grades. Careful vocabulary building. Presents scientific work in its humanistic aspect at a level children will understand.

CLARK, RONALD. *Great Moments in Battle*. Roy, 1961. 121p. \$2.50.

A variety of vivid stories giving exciting accounts of some of man's great moments in battle as he fought in all parts of the world, from Custer's Last Stand which was fought in 1876, to the Korean War of 1951. Boys who enjoy war stories will really "go for" this book.

CLARK, RONALD. *Montgomery of Alamein*. Roy, 1961. 109p. \$2.50.

This biography described Montgomery from the early years of his life when he was trying to discover how war, which dealt in men's lives, could be organized more efficiently. How he put his ideas into operation and advanced from a commander to chief of the Imperial General staff is aptly told and will inspire young people to select a career and diligently pursue it. High school boys will especially enjoy this military history of a great character.

CLOUTIER, HELEN. *Many Names of Lee Lu*. Whitman, 1960. unp. \$2.25.

This is the sensitively told story of how Lee Lu, a Chinese boy, beginning his school life in America, wonders what name the teacher will give him and what name the children will call him. The joy he experiences when these questions are answered makes this a heart warming story of adjustment. Ages 7-9.

COOKE, DAVID COXE. *Flights That Made History*. Putnam, 1961. 70p. \$2.50.

The story of aviation is presented through well written descriptions of famous flights accompanied by photographs of the planes. The book will appeal to any one interested in the subject, and will be a good supplementary book for history in the elementary school.

COOPER, LETTICE. *Young Florence Nightingale*. Roy, 1961. 143p. \$3.00.

Elementary girls always find the story of Florence Nightingale fascinating reading, and this one with the many incidents of her childhood so well told, will prove exceptionally absorbing. A strong, determined character, Flo is shown as a person who always dominated her group, and preferred always to accept responsibility rather than pleasure. Recommend.

DREIFUS, MIRIAM. *Brave Betsy*. Putnam, 1961. 46p. \$2.00.

Betsy is a doll, and helps save Joan, her mistress, when Joan is in trouble. Reading level is the latter part of the first grade or the first part of the second grade. Children will enjoy both the story and the illustrations.

EARLE, OLIVE. *Camels and Liams*. Morrow, 1961. 63p. \$2.75.

Beautifully decorated with black and white drawings by the author, this account, including the background and ancestry of the camel, is written for young elementary reading. The type is large and clear, the illustrations accompany the text page by page, and the commentary prepared in an easy reading style. It should prove as popular as the other contributions by the author.

EASTMAN, PHILIP. *Are You My Mother?* Random, 1960. 63p. \$1.95.

Absolutely superb. This book for beginning readers is in a class all by itself. Both the illustrations and the text deserve praise and the editors of this new series for "Beginning Beginners" place parent, teachers and librarians in their debt.

ENGEMAN, JOHN T. *Airline Stewardess*. Lothrop, 1960. 117p. \$3.50.

A 150-page picture story of the requirements and training in this field. Beautiful pictures accompanied by a brief text explain even the simplest detail, as caring for a passenger's baby. It is all so glamorous and exciting high school girls who examine this book will be tempted to apply for this service at once. A beautiful book.

FENTON, EDWARD. *Phantom of Walkaway Hill*. Doubleday, 1961. 260p. \$2.95.

Seen through the eyes of twelve-year-old James, the events that happen in an old house his uncle has recently bought, will absorb upper elementary readers. James is visiting his uncle's family when they are snowed in, and mysterious happenings continue to puzzle them. A large collie that has lived at this house and refused to leave, is something of the hero. Unusual treatment here lifts this title above the average mystery for juniors.

GOVAN, CHRISTINE. *Willow Landing*. World Pub., 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

Nell loved cats, and she tried to be helpful to a great many people. Somehow this seemed to get her into several kinds of trouble. The setting is a Mississippi river town shortly after "The War." Children about 9 to 12 will be absorbed in finding how troubles can disappear, and how the good part keeps on.

GRANT, GEORGE. *Boy Overboard*. Little, Brown, 1961. 199p. \$3.00.

The salt of the sea and the wonder of foreign ports is all in this interesting and quite unlikely tale of a two weeks voyage on a banana ship. It all turns out well for the 9- to 12-year-old reader, but it has no logical right to do so.

GREEN, ERMA. *Let's Go to a Steel Mill*. Putnam, 1961. 43p. \$1.95.

Welcome addition to the "Let's Go" series designed for use in conjunction with field trips or with extending experience beyond the confines of the classroom. Recommended for upper elementary libraries.

GREENHOOD, DAVID. *Watch the Tides*. Hastings House, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

Illustrated interesting reference reader on the nature of and explanation for tides. The author recreates these processes for children aged eight to twelve.

GUILLOT, RENE. *Sama*. Criterion, 1961. 164p. \$3.50.

I feel that an author should tread lightly if he sets himself to the task of writing from an animal's point of view, but this interpretation of a young elephant's awakening to the Africa around him, his reaction to capture and later experiences are credible. The background study of Africa is very valuable, the illustrations sophisticated, and the book will be a pleasure to a select number of upper elementary readers.

HARVEY, TAD. *Quest of Michael Faraday*. Doubleday, 1961. 56p. \$2.50.

Carefully written and sympathetic account of one of the world's great scientists—a man who in the mid-nineteenth century studied electricity. Well illustrated. Will appeal to junior high school youth.

HIRSHBERG, ALBERT. *Eddie Mathews Story*. Messner, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

Biography portraying the life of Eddie Mathews, a find young athlete, who made his mark in the major league even though he was subjected to the temptation of trying to reach his goal too fast and without the necessary experience needed. A page of photographs, table of Mathews performance in the major leagues 1949-50 supplement the text. Splendid example of real sportsmanship and an inspiration to the reader.

HOLLAND, JOYCE. *Round Robin*. Denison, 1961. unpag. \$2.75.

Another title coming in a series dealing with animals and insects, aimed in this case to give the young reader correct ideas about eating habits. The story is imaginative and humorous and will challenge beginning readers with its large easy to read type, and brief page arrangement.

HOSIER, JOHN. *Sorcerer's Apprentice*. Walck, 1961. 64p. \$2.50.

The unusual feature of this collection, which contains five well known folk tales, is the description of the music which each of the stories have inspired. The format of the book is very attractive, the type clear, the illustrations interesting. Upper elementary readers will find use for the collection because of the analysis of the music which follows the story in each case. Recommended.

HOYT, EDWIN. *Lost Statesman*. Reilly & Lee, 1961. 214p. \$3.50.

These short accounts of the lives of ten men who might have been presidents of the United States help give meaning to some of the great movements in the history of our country. The first one is Alexander Hamilton, and the last is Robert A. Taft. Those in between are all men who have contributed much to the cause of mankind. Possibly over simplified, but very fine for upper grade and high school youths.

IPCAR, DAHLOV. *Deepsea Farm*. Knopf, 1961. unpag. \$3.00.

An amazing picture book. Vivid with page illustrations, each one showing new and interesting pictures of plant and animal life in the sea. A lively imaginative tale accompanies the pictures, and young readers

will find both the story and the pictures fascinating. Highly recommended.

JANE, MARY C. *Mystery At Dead End Farm*. Lippincott, 1961. 119p. \$2.50.

A jam packed mystery set in Maine potato country, replete with secret inventions, missing persons, old Indian tales and a hidden lead mine, this story is slanted for the third and fourth grade girl. There is a white deer and plenty of the joys of country living, plus an adult romance which may help some young mind on the current difficulty of new papas and mamas.

KARNEY, BEULAH. *Keepers of the Bell*. John Day, 1961. 190p. \$3.50.

This story is set in Donegal in the days of "rack-rent." It shows the worst of the rack-renters in Lord Woollock, the best of the paternalistic land-lord in Lord Davies, and the best of the Irish peasantry in the O'Melaine family. Kevin is really the hero of this story, though his younger brother Conal is likely to be recognized as the Wild Imp of the book of that title. Interesting and informative for upper graders.

KETTERING, CHARLES. *Prophet of Progress*. Dutton, 1961. 252p. \$5.00.

T. A. Boyd has made splendid selections from the speeches of Charles F. Kettering and call the book *Prophet of Progress*. High School students looking for ideas for talks, illustrations and stories for speeches will be so happy to have found this book.

L'ENGLE, MADELINE. *Meet the Austins*. Vanguard, 1961. 191p. \$3.00.

Maggy Hamilton, orphaned by the sudden death of her pilot father finds herself thrust into the happy life of the six happy fun loving Austins who find it hard to accept and understand insolence. Finally, Maggy realizes what a wonderful opportunity she has to become a member of such a fine family and accept their love. Fine story for children who for one reason or another find it difficult to adjust to happy family living. Any child is most fortunate who's librarian helps him or her to "Meet the Austins."

LENS, SIDNEY. *Working Men*. Putnam, 1961. 191p. \$2.95.

Here is an interesting account of the

growth and development of the labor movement in America. Material found here on strikes, men who made them, the strengths and weaknesses of the labor elements will be valuable information for young people in civics and history classes.

LEXAU, JOAN. *Olaf Reads*. Dial Press, 1961. 53p. \$2.75.

A beginning reader's book with a touch of humor both in situation and illustration which will challenge second grade readers who may have difficulty in the usual story. Well bound and filled with pictures, it will prove a practical choice for all reading rooms where young readers search for books.

LIPMAN, ANN. *Kimmy Kat and the Toymaker*. Humphries, 1961. unpag. \$2.00.

The toymaker's magic sprayed on himself too, so he and Kimmy Kat went together to help children have good times that they could be happy in remembering. Just the touch of imagination that will appeal to children 3 to 7.

LOVEJOY, BAHJA. *Other Bible Lands*. Abingdon, 1961. 176p. \$3.95.

The past and present of Israel's neighbors. A valuable reference for Bible study as well as interesting reading, for adults, as well as for younger readers.

LOWE, GEORGE. *From Everest to the South Pole*. St. Martins, 1961. 215p. \$4.50.

The graphic story of the author's personal experiences in two world-famous expeditions will prove challenging and exciting to young people and adults. The reader follows the well-written, descriptive accounts of the expected and unexpected incidents from the mountain top to the south pole with keen interest and anticipation. Illustrated with actual photographs made by the author.

MCCARTY, REGA. *Brenda Becomes a Buyer*. Messner, 1960. 191p. \$2.95.

Young girls will especially enjoy this exciting story showing what happens behind the scenes of a great department store. Even though Brenda, the heroine, had to give up her planned college career because of the sudden illness of her father, she is compensated by the interesting job and subsequent love affair.

Men of Science and Invention. American Heritage, 1961. \$3.50.

A story of beginnings in modern science for the junior high school student. Carefully written and colorfully illustrated text gives the thread of discovery. The themes are the industrial revolution, internal combustion, electrical revolutions, the turn of the century, the atom, and the universe.

NEAL, HARRY EDWARD. *Engineers Unlimited*. Messner, 1961. 192p. \$3.50.

Young people should be interested in this fascinating book describing possible careers in engineering. Gives appealing case histories of modern projects being undertaken by engineers. A must for mechanically minded students and progressive libraries. Will be of interest to young people seeking a career in engineering.

NICHOLSON, WILLIAM. *Clever Bill*. Doubleday, 1961. 22p. \$2.50.

Mary was going to visit her Aunt at Dover. She had to take so many things that she packed her bag this way, and that way, and another way. When it really was time to go she was so flustered she left her toy soldier Bill. Bill was not to be left behind and the way he fixed things shows how clever he was. A delight for children 2 to 5.

NIELSEN, VIRGINIA. *Road to the Valley*. McKay, 1961. 152p. \$2.95.

Background study of Mormon motivation during the time the believers were moving to the Great Salt Lake region. The story features lively, sixteen-year-old Ellen Barlow, and tells of her contribution in the effort her mother was making to leave Iowa and go on with their group. The hardships encountered are typical, but the story is different in that the thinking is characterized by the Mormon point of view.

OLDEN, SAM. *Getting to Know Africa's French Community*. Coward McCann, 1961. 64p. \$2.50.

This book may be considered an introduction to the new nations of Africa which were once territories of France, but are now equal partners with that country in what is known as "The Community." Current, authentic information about the land, the people and their culture makes this an excellent source book for the 8-12 year olds.

OLDS, HELEN. *What Will I Wear?* Knopf, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

First and second grade girls will enjoy reading about Pam and her problems in selecting her clothes while her mother is away. The story is brief, the type large and clear, and exciting and humorous drawings decorate each page. Recommended.

OSMUND, EDWARD. *From Drumbeat to Tickertape*. Criterion, 1961. 122p. \$3.95.

An unusual treatment of the progress of mankind through the communication angle. A beautiful book with most attractive colorful illustrations, page after page, by the famous author. All ages will use this book because of the interesting text as well as the exciting drawings. Recommended.

PAULI, HERTHA. *First Easter Rabbit*. Washburn, 1961. unp. \$2.95.

A legend with the rather mystical characteristics of a fairy tale, this story of St. Francis during Lent on an Island with only birds and animals will entrance young children (4-8). The rabbit suggested a present for brother Francis when he left, and all the birds and animals helped with the first Easter basket.

PETTIT, THEODORE. *Animal Signs and Signals*. Doubleday, 1961. 55p. \$2.95.

Colorfully illustrated and simply written account of nature lore for the young (age 12 and up) naturalist. The author writes so as to provide explanations for and give attention to commonly observed phenomena.

PRICE, OLIVE. *Phantom Reindeer*. Coward McCann, 1961. 94p. \$2.75.

Against the background of Finnish Lapland, middle elementary readers will get the adventure and sense of danger that makes up a war story. Large, clear type, black and white illustrations, and a story brief enough to hold even those who may be having reading difficulty. Besides the war element the story carries a strong feeling of love and loyalty for animals. Recommended.

RATHJEN, CARL. *Haunted Highway*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 218p. \$2.95.

Neal Kirby was driving a truck from his

father's fleet when he was highjacked and his partner killed. This fast moving and highly interesting book is concerned with Neal's efforts to cooperate with local and state police and the FBI in tracking down the criminals.

RILEY, JAMES WHITCOMB. *Joyful Poems for Children*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1960. 157p. \$3.50.

Here is the familiar and beloved children's classic in a completely recent, newly illustrated edition. Children today who avoid reading dialect poetry miss the sincere humor of poets like James Whitcomb Riley. May this book bring back present-day children in the favorite poems of a passing generation and of a world that for many children has passed except in their dreams.

ROBERTS, MARY. *Get with it Joan*. Washburn, 1961. 179p. \$2.95.

Against advice on every hand, Joan goes on with her plans to be a nurse, and finds it as absorbing as she had thought. Much of her happiness, however, was due to the presence of Skip, a boy friend of high school days, who had been out of the picture for a while. Anyway, he is an interne where she is training and their experiences and romance will interest junior high school girls.

ROBERTS, MARY. *Johnny Hop's Adventure*. Denison, 1960. unp. \$2.75.

Another title coming in a series dealing with animals and insects, aimed to give general information to primary readers through the medium of a short story. A well bound, vividly illustrated book which will challenge beginning readers. Recommended.

SAINT-MARCOUX, JEANNE (Mrs. Paul Berna). *Green Slippers*. Reilly & Lee, 1961. 176p. \$2.95.

The charm of Paris and the appeal of varied and pungent personalities is in this story of Michele. She is the niece of an antique dealer, and the three boys of a family just on the other island make up the "pirates." There is the opera, ballet, success and longing, and a surprising fulfillment. A wonderful translation from a delightful story in French.

SEWELL, BARBARA AND LYNCH, PATRICK. *Story of Ancient Egypt*. St. Martins, 1961. 64p. \$2.75.

Ancient Egypt becomes real and meaningful as the authors discuss relationships between the achievements of today and those of people long ago. There is evidence of careful research throughout the book. Use of questions within the stories makes the book challenging to the abler elementary students.

SHERMAN, JAMES. *Joey Gets the Golf Bug*. Little, Brown, 1961. 171p. \$2.95.

Joey did not know much about golf, but he wanted a job and decided to learn to be a caddie. That did it. Elementary sport lovers will be interested in his learning about golf, what happened one day and how the accident turned out. Much information about the game. Recommended.

SMITH, ROBERT. *Jack Mack*. Coward McCann, 1960. unp. \$2.50.

The author of a best seller book on childhood, *WHERE DID YOU GO? OUT. WHAT DID YOU DO? NOTHING*, here gives us his first book for children. A delightful book it is, all about Jack Mack, written in chanting tongue twisting verse children will enjoy listening to and repeating. Humorous illustrations add to the charm of the text.

STEINBERG, ALFRED. *Douglas MacArthur*. Putnam, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

The author states that the "lifetime of Douglas MacArthur reads like a unique adventure novel." Readers will discover the truth in this statement as they follow his life as an "army brat" to his decoration by the Japanese government in 1960. This is one of the Lives to Remember series written especially for children.

STRACHAN, MARGARET. *Mennonite Martha*. Washburn, 1961. 144p. \$2.95.

A charmingly told story of Mennonite life, which seems so quaint to most American boys and girls. Martha's longing for a pink dress will be more easily understood than her eventual satisfaction in doing without it. For intermediate grade reading.

SYME, RONALD. *Francis Drake*. Morrow, 1961. 96p. \$3.75.

This is an exciting biography of Sir Francis Drake. His swashbuckling adventures on the unknown seas should prove highly interesting to the young reader.

TURNER, JOHN. *Battle Stations: The U. S. Navy's War*. Putnam, 1960. 192p. \$3.50.

Recounts most of the navy battles from Pearl Harbor to the Japanese surrender, giving colorful day by day accounts of the sounds, smells, and sights of the battles as they were fought. Readers can feel the mood of the war, the feelings and sacrifices of the men. Events are given in chronological order. Can be used as supplementary reading in history classes and in study of World War II.

WEBB, ROBERT. *Trapped On North Island*. Duell, Sloan, 1961. 151p. \$3.00.

Jimmy and Nick are marooned on an island by a tornado. Then a bank robber and a baby are forced down on the same island. There are plenty of desperate situations vividly portrayed, and an ending that is satisfactory for junior high readers.

WERSBA, BARBARA. *Boy Who Loved the Sea*. Coward McCann, 1961 unp. \$2.50.

This phantasy of a boy who had never seen the sea, and ran away from home to get to it, is certainly a strange one. He lives in the sea for a day or so, and then the land calls him and did the sea. The tale may be explained in part by the fact that Miss Wersba had taken up skin-diving.

WHITMAN, VIRGINIA. *Ozark Obie*. Broadman, 1961. 160p. \$2.95.

Obie wants to prove that he is no longer a "baby." He is a large, well built twelve-year-old boy, with a job for the summer. He is working to get enough money to buy a deer rifle for the fall hunt. Many things interrupt his work but elementary readers will be interested in the way he meets these problems. A good Southern story. Recommended.

WILLARD, BARBARA. *If All the Swords In England*. Doubleday, 1961. 190p. \$1.95.

Taking its title from the famous words of Thomas Becket, the Archbishop of Canter-

bury, this story gives a vivid account of the struggle between him and King Henry II. Simon and Edmund Audemer, twin brothers, in service of the rivals witness the dramatic events which led to the martyrdom of Thomas Becket. Simon's crippled hand is healed by the first miracle of the Archbishop who became a saint. This is one of the new Clarion fiction series with high interest level.

WILLIS, PRISCILLA. *Jory and the Buckskin Jumper*. St. Martin's Press, 1960. 229p. \$3.50.

Excellent story of family life on an Indiana Farm. Shows the unflinching faith of a little boy in his beloved horse and how such faith is eventually rewarded. Gives interesting information on 4-H clubs, livestock exhibits and show horses. Both boys and girls will love this refreshing and delightful story.

WOODWARD, HILDEGARD. *House of Grandfather's Hill*. Scribner's, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.95.

This story and the impressive illustrations of heavy construction machinery give an interesting and significant portrayal of what machines can do in developing construction projects and building homes. Many children will say with Eric, "I'm going to be a builder when I grow up." For children about 4 to 8.

YOUNG, MIRIAM. *Please Don't Feed Horace*. Dial Press, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.95.

Horace lived in a zoo. Children brought him things to eat. One day he ate his regular breakfast of hay, and then 23 different kinds of things the children gave him. What happened is the reason a sign was put up, saying, "If you love Horace, don't feed him." A picture book for children, with sort of futuristic pictures.

Education and Psychology

CLARK, MARGARET. *Teaching Left Handed Children*. Phil. Lib., 1961. 44p. \$2.95.

This forty-four page book deals with nine topics concerning teaching left handed children. It indicates that seven percent of children in eight primary schools of Scotland are left-handed. It states that there is

an imperative need to devote similar attention to writing of left-handers and right-handers.

HULLFISH, HENRY AND SMITH, D. G. *Reflective Thinking*. Dodd, Mead, 1961. 273p. \$2.95.

This book suggests that teachers should give careful attention to methods of teaching students how to think. The authors analyze the activity of thinking, the "tools" of thinking, and the ways in which the teacher can foster reflective thinking.

LINGREN, HENRY AND BYRNE, D. E. *Psychology: An Introduction to the Study of Human Behavior*. Wiley, 1961. 429p. \$6.50.

This is a standard text in General Psychology, covering such topics as perception, learning, personality, intelligence, and social behavior. The orientation is scientific and directed toward the needs of the student. It is profusely illustrated.

MILLER, CARROLL. *Foundations of Guidance*. Harper, 1961. 464p. \$6.00.

This book with its well-organized and research-based treatise on the social, cultural, psychological, and educational foundations of guidance, has been needed in the field for a long time. It is not the usual how to do it type of book; nor is it repetitious of the many other guidance books now on the market. It makes very interesting and pleasurable reading.

RUSK, ROBERT. *Outline and Experimental Education*. St. Martin's, 1960. 118p. \$3.50.

A brief, well written discussion of the applicability of science to education by a well known Scottish educational philosopher who realizes clearly that science has its limitations. Though brief, the volume is meaty and thought-provoking.

WELLINGTON, CHARLES BURLEIGH AND J. W. *Teaching for Critical Thinking*. McGraw Hill, 1961. 364p. \$6.50.

A readable and usable treatment of teaching as the development of critical thinking. Analyzes the nature of critical thinking and its development, and includes many illustrations of the teacher's role. Although the il-

illustrations are from high school classes, the text consistently emphasizes the importance of method teaching for critical thinking in all education.

Health and Physical Education

BUTLER, GEORGE. *Playgrounds*. 2nd ed. Ronald, 1960. 513p. \$7.00.

This third edition of a very fine text in the Recreation area. This publication is by one of the most able contributors to Recreation Materials. The new edition gives a broad coverage to practically all aspects of Recreation. It is well written and a most valuable book for recreation leaders.

CARTER, JOEL. *How To Make Athletic Equipment*. Ronald Press, 1960. 390p. \$6.75.

At last a publication which literally puts all types of equipment in the reach of everyone. The book suggests many types of equipment and explains its construction in simplest detail. Should mean a big boost in the development of home, club and school athletic and play equipment.

TURNER, CLAIR ELSMERE. *School Health and Health Education*. C. V. Mosby, 1961. 481p. \$5.00.

The book covers quite well the school health services, school health education and the healthful environment. It considers among other points, the activities of those who contribute to the total school health program.

Literature

BURNFORD, SHEILA. *Incredible Journey*. Little, Brown, 1961. 145p. \$3.75.

This is the story of a Siamese cat, a bull terrier, and a Labrador retriever and a long trek home across part of Canada's rough and sparsely populated country. The story is good, and the entire book is magnificently written. Though listed by the publishers as "a book for young adults" it is more realistically a book for all ages. Definitely recommended.

MOWAT, FARLEY. *Ordeal By Ice*. Little, Brown, 1961. 364p. \$6.50.

A collection of original accounts of explorations along the arctic border of North America, of Hudson, Frobisher, and others. Full flavored adventures along the Northwest passage.

Reference

CARMAN, HARRY J. AND THOMPSON, A. W. *Guide to the Principal Sources for American Civilization, 1800-1900, in The City of New York*. Columbia Univ., 1960. 453p. \$10.00.

A topically classified bibliography of source materials of the 19th century America that are in the libraries, archives, and other depositories of New York City.

Science and Math

OREAR, JAY. *Fundamental Physics*. Wiley, 1961. 318p. \$6.75.

Seldom does one find a book which treats fundamentals in an interesting, concise, and illuminating way. This is such a volume. A reader having already some knowledge of physics and mathematics will be able to update, organize and re-orient his understanding of physics. Written for the liberally educated person rather than the specialist.

Social Science

CARSON, RACHEL. *Sea Around Us*. Oxford Univ. 1961. 237p. \$5.00.

This edition of a truly great and popular book contains notes on advances in the last decade and eight plates of photographs. A "must" for physical geography and general science.

ROZWENC, EDWIN CHARLES. *Causes of the American Civil War*. Heath, 1961. 233p. \$2.25.

Problems in American Civilization.

A splendid addition to this series. It will be an invaluable aid to students of the 1815-1860 periods, and certainly a most useful source book for teachers.

Text

STERLING, EDNA AND OTHERS. *English Is Our Language*. 2nd ed. Heath, 1961. book 2—\$2.48; book 3—\$2.76; book 4—\$2.92; book 5—\$3.00; book 6—\$3.00; book 7—\$3.28; book 8—\$3.36.

PEABODY *Journal* OF EDUCATION

September • 1961
Volume 39 NUMBER 2

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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

VOLUME 39

SEPTEMBER, 1961

NUMBER 2

Editorial—

“A Goodly Company”

On September 1, 1961, Dr. Felix Compton Robb moved into an impressive and durable line. He became president of George Peabody College for Teachers. Peabody is the latest, (and we fondly hope enduring of that series of educational institutions whose beginning was Davidson Academy, chartered by the legislature of North Carolina in 1785.

The catalogue of *headships* is one of major distinction, at times even of brilliance. Use your acquaintance with educational history in assessing this list: Thomas Craighead, James Priestley, Philip Lindsley, John Berrien Lindsley, Eben S. Stearns, William Harold Payne, James D. Porter, Bruce Ryburn Payne, Sidney Clarence Garrison, Henry H. Hill. And now, into that line has stepped worthily Felix Compton Robb.

A college president is a man to be considered. He is always the best existing measure of the college. His weakness will tend to dissolve the college's strength, and his strength will add cubits to its proper performance. The college will tend to establish itself at his level.

It is the known and accepted mission of George Peabody College for Teachers to provide the schools with its share of the best possible teachers. That is a responsibility in the due discharge of which Peabody rises to eminency. It is a mission into which President Robb's talents, training, and personality fit admirably. And so it is our wish that his tenure in that line will be long, and our expectation that it will add its increment of honor to the achievements of his forerunners.

A, B, C . . .

CLIFTON L. HALL

George Peabody College for Teachers

Many years ago, in what was then called "Grade Three Model," I studied grammar from an ugly little textbook with a repulsive brown cover. Most of it was pretty dull and technical, but it provided an occasional thrill. I can still recall my excitement when I discovered the statement that "the English alphabet is defective, redundant and inconsistent." I loved the sound of those words; I even spent some time learning them in the vain hope that the teacher might ask me a question that would give me the opportunity to use them.

"Great are the joys," says Santayana, "of haste and of radicalism, and young philosophers must not be deprived of them."¹ Perhaps there was enough of the young radical in me that I got an unholy joy from the idea of attacking the integrity of anything as ancient and sacrosanct as the alphabet. The discovery, a bit farther down the page, that the redundant letters were C, Q, J and X and the realization that, if the suggested reform were carried out, my first name would begin with a K was a trifle disconcerting but it gave me only slight pause. I was for two weeks an earnest advocate of alphabet reform.

Now, many years later, I note that the alphabet is just the same as it was in those halcyon days in Cowansville Academy. I have since learned that even so important a body as the National Teachers Association (now the NEA) listened to several addresses and deliberated learnedly on the reform of the alphabet without noticeable effect back in the 1860's and '70's. And a former British poet laureate, Robert Bridges, had the writings of his latter years printed in an alphabet as modified by himself. The Oxford University Press used to issue his essays at intervals, in slim volumes with grey board covers, each set in type specially cut and embodying the author's latest alphabetical reforms. Today the only effect of this innovation seems to be that they

¹ *Character and Opinion in the United States* (New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1956), p. 100.

are literary curiosities a trifle hard to read.

But the alphabet is with us and worth knowing well, although some educators might be horrified at the thought of children memorizing it (French children sing it enthusiastically in the first grade). Yet when I see an adult blundering up and down the pages of a telephone directory in search of a name or impatiently flicking the cards in the catalog of a library, I am moved to wonder whether some work on the alphabet in his childhood would not have been wise. Nowadays, alphabetical order is followed in a good many things besides telephone directories and card catalogs. Filing letters and other documents, arranging bibliographies, preparing class lists even—these and dozens of other common tasks call for some alphabetical skill.

Few persons would today go as far as the unknown author of the *NEW ENGLAND PRIMER* who warned Puritan babes of his time that

He who ne'er learns his A, B, C,
Forever will a Blockhead be.

Those people dealt in strong words and phrases; "forever" meant just what it said and a Blockhead was a Blockhead—not "an exceptional child." Yet, in spite of the progress that we so readily assume ourselves to have made since Puritan days, a little observation will show anyone taking the trouble to make it that a lot of people waste both time and temper fumbling over alphabetical matters simply because they failed, back in the elementary school, to learn their A, B, C, and how to use it.

On the need for attention to rational order in learning there is high authority. "No experience," says John Dewey, "is educative that does not tend both to knowledge of more facts and entertaining of more ideas and to a better, a more orderly, arrangement of them. It is not true that organization is a principle foreign to experience."² There are a good many other organized bodies of important knowledge besides the alphabet. In some the order depends on custom alone, as in the alphabet. In others it grows out of an inner logical consistency residing in the nature of the subject itself, as in the multiplication table. In most, it seems to be of both sorts, as in the geography of the United States or the works of Shakespeare. No subject is properly mastered until its particular organization is mastered as well as the facts.

² *Experience and Education* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1938), p. 102.

Group Sensitivity Training in a Teacher Education Program: an Initial Attempt

O. L. DAVIS, JR., and NORMAN D. BOWERS
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Facilitation of individual pupil learning within the classroom group is a basic problem facing any teacher. To solve this problem requires sensitivity to the individual pupil and his constellation of personal needs and to classroom groups as they unfold their complex processes of formation, maintenance, cohesion, and operation. However, few attempts have been made to include specific group sensitivity training in teacher education curricula. The traditional approach has emphasized information about pupil characteristics with teacher candidates having some opportunity to observe a classroom, make a case study, or participate in an action research project. Although helpful, these procedures probably are not sufficient in developing the necessary insights and skills for a teacher to be successful in work with classroom groups.

How does a teacher candidate acquire sensitivity to the behavior of groups at work? How does he develop the skills to work effectively as a group member? How are leadership concepts developed? Lectures, readings, and participation in committee projects help. Needed, in addition, is the opportunity to practice skills as a group member; receive feedback from other group members regarding individual impact; and from this practice and evaluation, increase understanding and sensitivity to forces at work in individuals and groups.¹ Many of the principles and procedures developed by those interested in group

¹ See Gibb, J. R., "A Climate for Learning," *Adult Education*, Summer, 1958, and Miles, Matthew B., "The Learning Process During Human Relations Training," in *Human Forces in Teaching and Learning, Selected Readings*, Series 3. Washington, D.C.: National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, 1961, pp.76-87.

processes appear useful.² Some procedures have been evaluated for teachers in-service,³ and one program currently under way at the University of North Carolina has attempted to plan a curricula aimed at developing increased group sensitivity of pre-service teachers.

The first attempt was made during the Summer, 1960, with the 23 selected college graduates that comprised the student body of the UNC Fifth Year Program in Teacher Education.⁴ As part of this experimental program, planned activities were designed to develop understandings, skills, and attitudes necessary for future teachers to be initially successful in a classroom teaching experience. During the first six weeks, the Fifth Year students were concerned with the study of psychological and social foundations of education. A dominant organizing element was a concern with group behavior and group functioning. Lectures, readings, small group tasks, practice sessions in analyzing role playing, and discussions by the entire group were techniques employed. Practical classroom situations and information about social foundations, teachers' classroom roles, and effects of group pressures provided the substance for much of the work.

Outside the bounds of class work, the Fifth Year students developed a strong group identity. Most of the students had completed their undergraduate work at institutions other than the University of North Carolina. The UNC campus was unfamiliar to them. Few students knew each other before summer school. For most students, the summer's work was their initial contact with professional courses in Education. These conditions facilitated the students' desire to become better acquainted with each other outside of class. Informal sub-groups, and

² See *NTL Skill Exercises*. Washington, D.C.: National Training Laboratory, National Education Association, N.D.; Miles, Matthew B., *Learning to Work in Groups*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959; Miles, Matthew B., and Stephen M. Corey, "The First Cooperative Curriculum Research Institute," in *Research for Curriculum Improvement*, 1957 yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1957, pp. 305-348; Henry, Nelson B., (ed.), *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups*. 59th NSSE Yearbook, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.

³ Bowers, Norman D., and Robert S. Soar. *Studies of Human Relations in the Teaching Learning Process, V. Final Report: Evaluation of Laboratory Human Relations Training for Classroom Teachers*, 1961. Chapel Hill, North Carolina, and Columbia, South Carolina, 1961.

⁴ The basic outline for this program is presented in Arnold Perry, "North Carolina's New Fifth Year Program in Teacher Education," *The High School Journal*, 43:262-270, February, 1960.

at times the entire group, arranged to eat meals, to study, to go on picnics and parties together. Coupled with the instructors' attempt to develop group consciousness, these activities led quickly to a clearly-perceived identity as a special campus group, one with special opportunities and problems.⁵

During the second half of the summer, an intensive two-week laboratory program featured lectures, "skill practice" sessions, and group discussions all structured as part of a course in general methods of teaching. Students were randomly assigned to two groups, numbering eleven and twelve respectively.

Lectures dealt with such topics as "Maintenance and Cohesiveness of Groups" and "Problem-Solving in Small Groups." "Skill practices" included role play and other activities designed to develop understanding of group process. Discussions were unstructured, with two staff members intervening only at crucial times to help the group complete its work.

As might be expected, the discussion groups became the focal point of the experience. They functioned as other such groups have been described.⁶

There was a general uneasiness and restlessness about the lack of substance ("content") and the absence of direction by an instructor. There were attempts by individuals to organize the group, to be arbitrary and authoritative in goal-setting—all to be resisted and rebuffed by the others. Some students rejected the group; others came to the discussion sessions, said nothing or physically withdrew from the group. The groups initially resisted efforts to talk about their feelings and group process, but as the sessions continued, they became more willing to examine each other's actions and feelings. As might be predicted, the group frequently failed to agree on particular "content" to discuss. Hostility toward the Program, each other, and the instructors was expressed in both groups during the second week.

In the opinion of the instructors, some students made substantial

⁵ Only two students failed to take an active part in this process. Both were UNC student graduates and had their social and academic relations established with students not in the Fifth Year Program.

⁶ Weschler, I. R., and Reisel, J. *Inside A Sensitivity Training Group*. Los Angeles: University of California, Industrial Relations Monograph, No. 4, 1959.

progress in understanding group process; others made very little or no progress. Some students gained in ability to recognize their own and others' sensitivity. For others, the discussions were personally threatening, served to reinforce their unwillingness to "expose" ideas and feelings, and instilled a disposition against group efforts. In non-structured individual interviews with the students about the group experience, a number of questions and problems were raised. Some students did not "like" the discussion group experience. It was difficult to sit in the group, and even harder to participate. Students indicated that they had experienced years of becoming adept at using language to disguise their feelings and to conceal "themselves;" two weeks of a structure designed to allow them to "open up" and freely talk about events and process that was a part of them was, if nothing more, an irritant. They reported that they didn't want and didn't like to talk about their friends; that the discussion sessions put actions "under a fluoroscope" for everyone to view and discuss. Almost universal agreement was indicated that the identity of the total group was disturbed; that the "group of 23," a well-formed one during the first summer session, was fragmented by the discussion group activity. Some students reported the discussion groups as simply unpleasant; most, however, indicated generally positive reactions.

Much evidence was obtained from a questionnaire that all student participants were asked to complete at the end of the two-week period.⁷ Generalized reactions of the students to four questions included:

Question 1. *What things do you understand better as a result of the group activity?*

People can disagree with authority (3);⁸ a group goal is important (3); it is difficult for some people to understand others (3); individual cues are needed (3); it takes time for people to work together (2); it is hard to be tactful (2); one must recognize feelings of others (2); leadership changes with situations (2); other people are entitled to some opinion (1); conversation is necessary in a group (1); all people must contribute to a group

⁷ Developed by Matthew B. Miles, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. Mimeographed, 1958. Copy in Bowers and Soar, *op. cit.*

⁸ The number in parentheses represents the frequency of mention of the statement.

(1); people forced to do things respond poorly (1); everyone's feelings should be considered (1)

Question 2. *What things do you think you learned to do or do better as a result of the group activity?*

Respond in terms of my own feelings (12); evaluate more accurately my own or group contribution (9); be a better listener (5); be non-resentful of others' criticism (3); give support to a person in a group (2); no response (3)

Question 3. *What feelings do you think you changed or improved?*

Not so hesitant, or more confident to talk about feelings (7); not so often assumed I'm rejected by the group from the start (2); fewer feelings or hostility to those not in agreement with self (3); tolerance and consideration of others (7); no response (2)

Question 4. *What skills do you think you developed?*

Listening skills (5); how to stimulate and draw out other people (2); more conscious of own role in group (1); disagreeing with what others said (1); more sensitive to others (1); don't know (2); no response (3)

Although much caution must be exercised in interpretation of these data, the general tone of the responses seems to be positive, and evidently students felt they gained from the two-week experience. Additional interviews with students approximately six weeks after the discussion groups indicated almost universal positive feeling toward the experience.

That the discussion group sessions affected students' personal and peer group acceptance is supported by some objective data. Students completed a sociometric questionnaire, "Whom Would You Choose?" and the Bills *Index of Adjustment and Values* (IAV) both before and after the two-week session. The "Whom Would You Choose?" was developed by the Fifth Year Program staff and includes twelve items such as "With whom would you choose to study?" "With whom would you choose to go to a concert?" "Who in the class seems to understand things most easily in class and out of class?" and "Whom in this class would you like to have as a teacher?" Unlimited choice was afforded

each respondent in choosing his classmates.

The Bills IAV is a self-report instrument that provides an index of a person's perceptions about himself and others.⁹ Rated are one's perception of self as he is (actual), as he would like to be (ideal), and his satisfaction with his "actual" self. Included also are measures of perceptions of others' actual and ideal self concepts and of others' satisfaction with their actual self.

On ten of the sociometric questions there was no statistically significant change ($P = .05$)¹⁰ in the number of nominations received by the students as a group or men and women considered separately. As a total group, significantly more students were nominated following the two weeks' period on the question of "Who would you choose to be your colleagues in a school?" However, on the topic of being chosen as "best friends," students received fewer nominations following the sessions.

After the discussion experience, the group's "actual-self" ratings increased but decreased for the women when treated separately. No significant differences were observed in ratings of "acceptance of self," and "actual and ideal others." Following the two-week discussion and as compared with initial measurements, men tended to rate "others as less accepting of themselves," while women tended to rate "others as more accepting of themselves." More students' "self" and "others" discrepancy scores (actual-ideal) decreased than increased.

These findings might be interpreted as indicating more realistic perceptions and acceptances of self and others after the sensitivity training. Following the two-week period, students may have admitted to a "fewer" best friends, honestly eliminating some students who were included initially because of overall good feeling toward them, but with little real consideration of their desirability as close friends. In like manner, students may have been able to perceive their peers more accurately as professional colleagues as a result of the training. The lowered discrepancy scores, particularly, evidence clearer perceptions,

⁹ Robert E. Bills. *A Manual for the Index of Adjustment and Values*. Mimeographed. Auburn: Alabama Polytechnic Institute, 1957.

¹⁰ Significance of differences in direction of change (plus or minus) were tested by the Sign test. See Sidney Siegel, *Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavior Sciences*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956, pp. 68-75.

at least more realistic, of self and others.

The available evidence indicates that an attempt to incorporate sensitivity training to groups in a teacher education program can be meaningful to teacher candidates and worth the effort if such a goal is desired. Although students were "uncomfortable" during this experience, they seemed to develop sensitivity to others and skills in working effectively as group members. Reactions from students and some objective evidence indicates that some of the objectives of the group sensitivity training were met. This first attempt demonstrated the desirability and feasibility of such an experience as an integral part of an experimental program of teacher education. On the basis of this evidence, plans for future classes enrolled in the Program include the allocation of time and effort to provide such training. Additionally planned are controlled studies with comparison groups to evaluate possible significance of this training in adjusting to the first experience in the classroom (i.e. student teaching). If such studies provide positive evidence, major revisions in teacher education curricula will be appropriate, and a means for increasing the general level of teachers' skills will be available.

Student Teacher Reactions to the Aim of Education

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The American public is today more concerned with the aims of education than perhaps at any other time in history. This concern is frequently directed toward a consideration of the end product, the education of the whole child; at another time, it is directed toward a consideration of the facts, skills, attitudes, and appreciations of a particular discipline. Concurrently, others are disturbed by the philosophical, psychological, and sociological implications of the aims for American education. To some, the concern is one of simply executing that which has already been stated; to others, the concern is with altering the direction of those aims; and still others claim that another set of aims is in order for today's society.

To experienced teachers and administrators the aims of education, stated in both general and specific terms, have been the primary concern of education. To American educators, evaluations of education, in terms of these aims, have long been the common activity at local, state, and national levels. The purpose of this study, however, was to determine the attitude of student teachers to the aims of education as they saw them after but one semester's experience in the classroom. These students were requested to complete a checklist-questionnaire at the end of the semester in which they did their student teaching, indicating what to them was satisfying or annoying, "just exactly" what was satisfying or annoying, how often the situation affected them, how strongly they felt about the issue, and "exactly what" they thought could be done to improve the situation. To this survey, 139 seniors: 60 from secondary education and 79 from elementary education, responded. Of the total number, there were 115: 48 from secondary education and 67 from elementary education, who did their student

teaching in the public schools of New York City. The remaining 24 student teachers: 12 from each area, did their student teaching in the public schools of the suburban areas, New Jersey, or Connecticut. All were from the School of Education, Fordham University, New York City, (Classes of 1956 and 1957). Each of these student teachers had satisfied the academic requirements of the city and state, he had experience in supervised observation and supervised teaching, and he had the opportunity to engage in a variety of professional activities. He had ample opportunity to confer with his cooperating teacher, other teachers, the heads of departments, and University supervisors: all of whom were available for conferences on matters of individual and professional concern.

In reconciling the theories of education with the practical situation found in the classroom, these student teachers reacted variously to the problem area, "The teacher must (is expected to) follow the aims of the school." The expectation, according to Table I A below, was a source of annoyance to a significant number of teachers from both groups.

TABLE I A

Responses of 139 student teachers to Item 11, "A teacher must (is expected to) follow the aims of the school from the checklist-questionnaire, Satisfaction and Annoyances of Teaching, by field of specialization

	A	S	N	NC	ST*
Secondary Education	11'	37	9	3	60
Elementary Education	10'	52	14	3	79
Total	21'	89	23	6	139

* A—Annoyance; S—Satisfaction; N—Neither; NC—No Comment; ST—Subtotal. ' represents number falling within the range for statistical significance for the N involved.

Where the senior did his student teaching seemed to make a difference to both secondary and elementary teachers, for according to Table 1 B, a significant number of those with student teaching experience in New York City considered it a source of annoyance.

TABLE I B

Responses of 115 student teachers with student teaching experience in the public schools of New York City to the same item as in Table I A.

	A	S	N	NC	ST*
Secondary Education	10'	30	5	3	48
Elementary Education	8'	44	14	1	67
Total	18'	74	19	4	115

* Legend is the same as for Table IA

According to Table I C, however, the situation was different, for the situation there was satisfying instead.

TABLE I C

Responses of 24 student teachers with student teaching experience in suburban areas, New Jersey, or Connecticut to the same item as Table I A.

	A	S	N	NC	ST*
Secondary Education	1	7	4	-	12
Elementary Education	2	8	-	2	12
Total	3	15	4	2	24

*Legend is the same as for Table IA

“Just exactly” what was annoying is summarized in the following statements: (1) the aims of the school were inflexible, (2) the aims of the school were not expressed in written form, (3) the aims were unrealistic for certain groups of children, (4) too much was left to the discretion of the teachers, (5) one had a feeling of being regimented, (6) there was parental interference, not parental cooperation on the aims of the school, (7) the teacher felt insecure from not knowing what the aims of the school were, and (8) the possibility of being expected to agree to aims contrary to conviction could be annoying.

“Just exactly” what was satisfying was expressed by the majority who experienced satisfaction from this expectation because, (1) the aims served as guides to learning, (2) well-defined aims gave unity to the school’s program, (3) stated aims gave direction to teachers in their work with children, (4) the aims were reasonable and philosophically acceptable, (5) the aims were timely, (6) the teacher could have added aims had he so desired, (7) the aims were traditionally acceptable, (8) the aims were cooperatively determined, (9) harmony

was the end result of the cooperative choice of aims, and (10) the aims helped the child. In short, these student teachers felt that the aims of the schools in which they did their student teaching gave “unity, order, and purpose” to the school.

To determine the frequency with which this expectancy affected them, the student teachers were to indicate their reactions by checking “frequently,” “occasionally,” or “never.” According to Table II A, a significant number from both groups were affected “frequently.”

TABLE II A

Responses of total number of student teachers to frequency of occurrence of Item 11 above.

	F	O	N	NC	ST*
Secondary Education	23 '	22	7	8	60
Elementary Education	38 '	17	16	8	79
Total	61 '	39	23	16	139

*F—Frequently; O—Occasionally; N—Never; NC—No Comment; ST—Sub-total. '—Number falling within the range for statistical significance for the N involved.

Where the student teacher did his student teaching again seemed to make a difference, for a significant number of those who did their student teaching in New York City felt that they were affected “frequently.” Note Table II B below.

TABLE II B

	F	O	N	NC	ST*
Secondary Education	20 '	17	4	7	48
Elementary Education	29 '	16	15	7	67
Total	49 '	33	19	14	115

* Same legend as for Table II A

Those with student teaching experience elsewhere reacted differently as Table II C reveals:

TABLE II C

Responses of 24 student teachers with student teaching experience in areas other than New York City to frequency of occurrence of Item 11.

	F	O	N	NC	ST*
Secondary Education	3	5	3	1	12
Elementary Education	9	1	1	1	12
Total	12	6	4	2	24

* Same legend as for Table II A

To determine the strength of feeling toward this expectation the group was asked to indicate the intensity of feeling by checking “very strongly,” “fairly strongly,” or “not strongly.” A significant number from both groups felt “very strongly” about this item as Table III A reveals.

TABLE III A

Responses of 139 student teachers to intensity of feeling toward Item 11.

	V	F	N	NC	ST*
Secondary Education	28 '	19	5	8	60
Elementary Education	33 '	31	7	8	79
Total	61 '	50	12	16	139

* V—Very Strongly; F—Fairly Strongly; N—Not Strongly; NC—No Comment; ST—Subtotal. ' represents number falling within the range for statistical significance for the N involved.

Again, where the student teachers did their student teaching seems to have made a difference, for a significant number of those who did their student teaching in New York City felt “very strongly” about this item. Note Table III B.

TABLE III B

Responses of the 115 student teachers who did their student teaching in New York City, to the intensity of their feeling toward Item 11.

	V	F	N	NC	ST*
Secondary Education	24 '	13	4	7	48
Elementary Education	27 '	27	6	7	67
Total	51 '	40	10	14	115

*Same legend as for Table III A

The situation was somewhat different for those who did their student teaching outside the City: the secondary teachers did not feel “very strongly” about the item, while a significant number of the elementary education group did. This is presented in Table III C.

TABLE III C

Responses of the 24 student teachers who did their student teaching outside the Metropolitan area to the intensity of feeling toward Item 11.

	V	F	N	NC	ST*
Secondary Education	4	6	1	1	12
Elementary Education	6 '	4	1	1	12
Total	10 '	10	2	2	24

*Same legend as for Table III A

The student teachers had definite ideas on "exactly" what to do to improve the situation. They felt that (1) the beginning teacher should be assisted with the realization of the aims of education, (2) every lesson should be geared to worthwhile aims, (3) there should be greater use of the democratic process in the determination of aims, (4) the aims of the school should be publicized, (5) there should be greater participation in the determination of the aims of education, (6) creativity should be permitted, (7) the aims of education should be re-evaluated, (8) teachers should be free to determine their own specific aims, (9) parent-school cooperation should be encouraged, (10) a permissive attitude toward formulating the possible aims should be permitted, (11) teachers should "try to be heard," (12) better human relations at the faculty level could improve the situation, (13) some uniformity in aims would be desirable, (14) the aims of the school should be presented to the administration, (15) the aims of the school should be discussed with the administration, (16) teachers should find out what the aims of the school were before they accepted employment, (17) teachers should leave a school system if the aims were not compatible with their beliefs, and (18) politics should not enter into a statement of the aims of education. Thirty-nine students felt that suggestions for improvement were not in order since the situation as it is was satisfactory.

The aims of education, then, seem very real to these student teachers. Not only did they admit, somewhat objectively, the condition of their reaction; but they stated the frequency of the occurrence of the expectancy, and they indicated the intensity of their feeling to it. The subjective data revealed their understanding of the possible causes of the situation and their potentiality for resolving a difficulty. Taken together, they present an insight into one of the concerns of present-day education; an insight which may, indeed, be significant, for the future of American education rests largely in their hands.

Student Teaching and Teacher Recruitment

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To the undergraduate in education, student teaching is the most significant phase in the professional sequence of educational experiences required for certification. This is true because student teaching, unlike other course work, provides—or should provide—the teacher in training the opportunity to form quite definite and reliable conclusions as to whether or not he has both the ability to teach and the desire to follow through with what for him probably has been up to this point a tentative choice of vocation. Further importance accrues to student teaching because of its usual placement as the final experience in the professional sequence of courses leading to certification. Moreover, although it is a capstone in his training to become a teacher, student teaching is the first experience in the professional sequence that permits the prospective teacher the self-evaluation he must make if intent is to be converted to definite decision.

As a result of its critical significance, student teaching in many instances becomes a principal determinant of the attitude the young teacher carries into his first full-time teaching assignment. Student teaching is for many students a point of decision; and for these at least it provides opportunities for fortifying individual desire to teach which must not be overlooked by those responsible for teacher-training programs. It would seem obvious that no greater encouragement could be offered a teaching candidate than that flowing from a successful trial in an environment realistic as to the responsibilities as well as to opportunities for creative, individual effort. With proper application to the task at hand, it would seem that most students should succeed at their internship experiences; accordingly, it is the purpose of this article to emphasize the importance of structuring and managing the student-teaching experience with this success potential of each candidate as the

focal point toward which all activities should be directed. The author's experience is in the secondary field of business education, and the generalizations made herein will apply largely to student-teaching programs at the high school level. Readers, however, may agree that the elements described as essential to the defined successful student-teaching experience apply also to this program at the elementary level.

In the University of Washington student-teaching program in the secondary field of business education, students are expected to be successful to the degree that no serious consideration is given to vocational alternatives. There are two reasons for this point of view. First is the belief that the large majority of our cadets are ready academically for their student-teaching assignment. There are many experienced in this area who may challenge this assumption, who will doubt with some justification the academic fitness of any number of cadet teachers in all subject matter areas. Nevertheless, it must be remembered that these senior students have satisfied course requirements set up as prerequisites to the teaching assignment. Of course, major and minor field inadequacies will exist and should be anticipated; as they materialize, corrective measures may be prescribed. This should be a normal process to be expected when a four-year undergraduate program is spread to include general education and professional education course work, in addition to study in the major field. Admittedly, practice teaching may be a convenient vehicle for detecting and emphasizing inadequacies in subject matter backgrounds. To stress this aim, however, casts this most important work in a negative vein that is both unnecessary and undesirable. Readiness should not be confused with perfection, or even with near perfection.

The second reason for stressing the success potential of cadet teachers is found in the state of conviction many of them evidence regarding their tentative choice of vocation. College and university faculties responsible for teacher-training programs must accept the fact that many students in secondary education do not carry on their work with the tenacious determination characteristic of undergraduates in medicine, dentistry, law, accounting, or various other professional fields. Data gathered by the National Education Association shows that, of the 65,062 new teachers of the class of 1957 certified for secondary

teaching, only 42,600 found their way into classrooms. This 65.5 percent retention represents a slight improvement over the 63.2 percent and 62.9 percent of 1956 and 1955, but the 34.5 percent loss in a period of severe undersupply has serious implications for those concerned with teacher recruitment.¹ This situation might indicate to some that education, despite almost endless assurances to the contrary, has yet to be recognized by classroom teachers as a true profession. Education majors are interested in their work; but they are not, for the most part, dedicated, or even particularly determined. Haubrich lends confirmation to this conclusion. He writes:

“Teaching as a sidelight to the major purposes of life seems to be one of the overriding problems that face colleges of education. The amazing turnover in the profession may be due to this lack of deep conviction, as may be the continuing problem concerning the definition of purposes and directions in education.”²

This apparent lack of conviction over the outcome of a long, specialized, and expensive college education does not indicate a weakness in the education program itself. Neither does it indicate an unhealthy attitude on the part of many of tomorrow's classroom teachers. Rather it is a natural characteristic of a training program that up to the final stage is almost completely foundational, in which academic preparation does not give the student the kind of first-hand acquaintanceship he needs to gain assurance of ability as well as a favorable impression of the work he has elected to follow. Without doubt, a selling job of sorts will be done during student teaching; what must evolve is an experience that will convert somewhat uncertain recruits into enthusiastic, determined, certified teachers. Realization of these desired results demands more than program structure, more than a series of set procedures through which students hopefully learn what teaching is all about and at the same time acquire strongly favorable impressions concerning both their ability and their choice of vocation. Sound organization is, of course, most essential; no less important is a guiding philosophy that, in its awareness of existing facts, seeks to capitalize

¹ *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools*, 1958, Research Division, The National Education Association, Washington, D.C., April, 1958, p. 25.

² “The Motives of Prospective Teachers,” Vernon F. Haubrich, *The Journal of Teacher Education* 11; Sept., 1960, p. 383.

on the potential for success that accompanies each trainee into the practice-teaching experience.

There are four principal components that must be coordinated in planning and directed in activity toward the desired outcome if student teaching is to approach its maximum possibilities and do the selling job that needs to be done. These are:³

1. School staffs sympathetic to the basic principles and willing to do the extensive work required.
2. Student trainees who are ready technically and who have been given a realistic, although nonetheless enthusiastic, orientation to the job at hand.
3. University subject matter staffs qualified in all respects to direct the program.
4. Administrations in the public schools anxious to cooperate in the development of trainees by including them as completely as possible in the school activities in which their own teachers are regularly engaged.

The role of the cooperating high school teacher

Teachers under whose direct supervision students do their teaching are in a position of maximum influence over the student's future as an educator. The supervising teacher—student trainee relationship probably can do more to convert a trainee into a certified teacher than any other element in the preparatory program. To be of maximum assistance within the defined intent of this program, the high school teacher must be completely attuned to this viewpoint; that is, he must understand the significance of the practice-teaching experience and be willing

³ The author functions within the University of Washington's program for secondary school teachers of business subjects, a joint responsibility of the College of Education, the department of business education of the College of Business Administration, and the Seattle Public Schools. In actual practice the responsibility lies with the supervising business education faculty and the cooperating high school faculties, department heads, and the city's director of business education. The University's business education staff supervises the program; immediate day-by-day direction is in the hands of the high school department heads and those selected from their staffs to be supervising, or critic, teachers. Our students work four fifty-minute periods each day for one quarter at the school to which they are assigned for eleven weeks. For this they receive eight quarter units, about one-half a normal quarterly collegiate load.

to do the work necessary to make the program function. His responsibilities include demonstration of total teacher activity, assisting the student in assuming all of these activities, and offering suggestions and criticisms as the trainee "practices." Obviously, it is imperative that supervising teachers be selected with great care. In the University of Washington-Seattle Public Schools cooperative arrangement for business education teachers, this selection receives most careful attention. Actual appointment rests with the high school department head and the city director of business education. These two meet with the University supervisor to select those teachers who are to participate. The basic criteria are interest and desire. Technical competence, of course, is imperative; but the prevailing high level of teaching skill tends to minimize the importance of this factor. Financial remuneration to participating teachers is so small that it plays no part in promoting a teacher's desire to participate. Reliance is placed upon the department head to select those teachers who have a sincere, continuing interest in organizing and supervising a learning situation under which the cadet is given every effort to develop into an enthusiastic, determined, competent teacher.

Experience has proved that the supervising teacher best discharges his function when he does certain things and when he refrains from making rather obvious mistakes. His most compelling directive is that he draw out the responsibility of the cadet. The direct approach to this objective is to insist that the cadet teacher assume total classroom direction early in the assignment. There are, admittedly, substantial values in observation. However, observation of the supervising teacher in action must not be prolonged beyond the first few days. The cadet becomes assured only from successful performances as a teacher; pleasure from observing a skillful performance does little to develop self-confidence. Initially, cadets should assume the teaching function during only a fraction of a period. Complete charge is delegated when it appears that the cadet is ready to direct the full lesson. Supervising teachers are encouraged to hasten this day, and they are urged to maximize assistance with lesson planning and other details in these early stages. Acts which would undermine the status the cadet teacher is so desperately striving to establish in the eyes of students are dis-

couraged. Supervising teachers are requested to withhold criticism pending opportunities for consultation in private, permitting trainees to proceed with a lesson despite glaring mistakes, unless immediate rescue is compelling. Is there anything that so discourages a cadet teacher as a supervising teacher hovering nearby awaiting the day's first misstep? The "correction" that is almost certain to appear necessary on the spot may drive a wedge both between students and cadet and between cadet and supervising teacher that is far more costly to the final outcome than would be the misinformation or misdirection chargeable to the "practicing" teacher. Here, of course, the judgment of the supervising teacher is all important; prudent decisions at such times are hallmarks of superior supervising teachers. Cadets are extremely busy, so supervising teachers are expected to assign them work connected with only the specific classes in which they are cadeting. Loading the student teacher with paper checking from other classes may test "cooperativeness;" it also creates resentment that may strain severely the trainee-supervising teacher relationship as well as the fundamental desire to be a teacher.

The success of this program is rooted in the acceptance of these directives by supervising teachers. They define the critic function as it is visualized from the objective of emphasizing the success potential of each trainee.

The readiness of the trainee

A principal aim of undergraduate study in education for secondary teaching is the development of at least minimum levels of technical competence. This, of course, means competence only as untried, inexperienced teachers. Attempt to define effective teaching immediately indicates both the number and the complexity of qualities that must combine when good teaching results. Trainees should not be expected, except in rare instances, to be effective to the degree that effectiveness is expected of experienced teachers. These are beginning steps in working with students, preparing lessons, using and evaluating materials, handling clerical details, and carrying out administrative directives. In the business education program familiar to the author, cadets are expected to be proficient in the skill subjects of typewriting and

shorthand. Further, they are expected to have a basic understanding of business as a result of required work in accounting, business law, marketing, office procedures, and a general survey of business practices. From a required professional sequence of education courses, it must be presumed that students have acquired factual information about general problems of teaching as well as a theoretical background that they will use and extend during their internship assignment. We believe that our business student teachers have the potential for success because they have satisfactorily completed the requirements that are considered basic to this success.

Student teachers should be continuously alert to the need for intensive application to their daily tasks. Instructed carefully in the details of their assignment, they should be apprised of the need for application of their best effort. But they should know, on the other hand, that they will not be "fried" on a supervised griddle. They should know that their success is of paramount concern and that those directing the day-to-day efforts will make every effort to promote this success. They must find confidence in their technical skill and must believe that teaching in general and teaching in their selected field in particular are both more challenging and more rewarding than they had anticipated.

The University Supervising Subject Field Staff

Those responsible for organizing and supervising the student teaching program need to have had extensive secondary experience. No amount of graduate work is a suitable substitute for such background, since it is this similarity in training and experience that creates an invaluable common ground with secondary staffs in the cooperative student-teaching management. Furthermore, knowledge of the supervisor's first-hand familiarity with his tasks generates a confidence that markedly extends what can be done for the student teacher. Cadets gain added respect for this experience as they observe supervising teachers and the university supervisor in agreement on procedures flowing from this common background of classroom experience. This background, however, would be of little value in the absence of an appreciation of the strategic importance of practice teaching and a sincere desire to stress in supervisory activity the success potential of each cadet.

Criticism of student performance is bound to emerge from most demonstrations. However, university supervisors need to realize fully the necessity for bending all efforts toward preserving harmonious relations with the cooperating high school staff. Enhanced by common experiences, friendly and professional relationships nevertheless are constantly endangered in the situation wherein a student performs according to plans laid down by the supervising teacher but about some of which the university supervisor may have serious reservations. Under these normally prevailing conditions, discreet suggestions and comments will accomplish far more than frontal criticism, however justifiable; in describing as a bad example a lesson or a component of a lesson, the university supervisor runs the inevitable risk that accompanies criticism given in the absence of authority.

In the author's program, supervisors observe each cadet from six to ten times during the practice teaching assignment. A brief report is made of each observation. Weekly group conferences are held throughout the quarter, at which time common problems are discussed and observations reviewed. A detailed final evaluation is filed on each cadet and a recommended grade submitted to the director of secondary education in the College of Education. These evaluations are arrived at only after numerous consultations with each cadet's critic teachers throughout the quarter. Supervising teachers are encouraged to submit recommended grades to the cadet supervisor. Of course, it is basic to the goals of the program that each student teacher periodically be informed as to our evaluation of his progress.

The Public School Administration

The fourth factor directly influencing the student-teaching environment is the school administration, which in the program described here includes the high school department head, the city's director of business education, and the school's principal and vice-principal. In the University of Washington-Seattle Public Schools' program for student teaching in business education, the department head occupies a key position because of the leadership expected of him in all phases of his department's activities. Aggressive, continued interest by department heads in the student-teaching program and their endorsement of the principle of maximizing student potential for success have been major

factors in promoting the outcomes desired. The department head's cooperation is not expected merely on the basis of "professional" duty. Rather, he is encouraged to accept this as an essential partnership in which the daily operational phases are under the direct control and guidance of the individual charged with the management of the department. In effect, the department head acts for the university supervisor in the day-by-day administration of the program; actually, because of his authoritative position in the business education department, he is in far stronger position to implement the fundamental tenets of the program than is the university supervisor, whose authority extends only to the student teachers.

Where the department head is responsible to both a city director in the subject field and the school principal, both of these administrative officers must endorse enthusiastically the student-teaching program if department heads and supervising teachers are to devote substantial amounts of time and effort to the development of each individual student teacher. It is fallacious reasoning to take for granted the whole-hearted cooperation of administrative officers on the basis that they are in the final analysis acting to assure themselves a supply of competent teachers. Although the acquaintance undoubtedly does facilitate selection, substantial numbers of student teachers who are almost constant extraneous factors further burdening extremely busy staffs create a situation that demands serious appraisal of just how much should be done to maximize the potential of trainees, the majority of whom will never teach in the local system. Administrators must be consulted about arrangements, apprised periodically of student activity and progress, and their opinions solicited on the development of each cadet on the basis of classroom observations in the final stages of the internship. Ideally, close identification with the student teaching program serves to extend the effectiveness of administrators in stimulating their teaching staffs to evaluate current classroom procedures, practices, and materials in the light of developments accepted and recommended by teacher-training institutions.

If student teachers are to be included as completely as possible in the total teaching activity, the consent and active assistance of the school principal and other administrative officers obviously are essen-

tial. When cadets become engaged in school functions other than teaching, they should acquire a clearer picture of teacher activity, thus increasing both their interest and their identification of self with the teaching function. The enthusiasm of cadets for their work is markedly stimulated when administrators let them know they are “on the team” by asking them to participate in all-school activities such as assemblies, parent-teacher meetings, faculty meetings, and business-education days. Activities such as these provide opportunities for students to demonstrate capabilities developed over the years in countless non-academic experiences which so frequently emerge as the factors responsible for extraordinary success. If reliable evidence of the potential of student teachers is to be uncovered, an environment must be provided wherein a wide range of desirable personal capacities may be demonstrated.

Conclusion

The education undergraduate is not a recruit for teaching until he becomes certified and contracts for his first teaching position. Thus, each step of the teacher-training program must be recognized as a determinative component of the total effort to meet the demands of the nation's schools for both more and better trained teachers at all levels. Great significance must be attached to each stage, each course, in the preparatory work; but in student teaching we provide the first-hand experience that students freely accept as the one reliable criteria in the entire course sequence for evaluating both their capacity and their interest in what for many is a tentative, exploratory selection. Thus, it appears essential that student teaching be structured from a positive point of view, one from which this experience is visualized and planned in a way that promotes the reaffirmation of teaching as a career choice at what surely is a crucial stage for many trainees.

The implication for those responsible for student-teaching programs is clear: provide a setting designed to encourage not only program completion but also entry in the field. Students are—or should be—ready for their student-teaching assignment. To administer a program designed primarily to uncover and maximize shortcomings that should be anticipated as normal in untried teachers would be to neglect a golden opportunity for recruitment.

Value Theory as Basic to Philosophy of Education

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Some philosophers of education have suggested that one's theory of education is properly an expression of one's knowledge-theory; that is that education is first of all a question of *how* one learns and only secondarily of *what* or *why* one learns. Following this line of reasoning one may develop, as Dewey has done, a monistic system based on an epistemology, having little regard for values, being wholly scientific and therefore "modern." It is thought by some that knowledge-theory is the key to and the chief basis for all philosophy of education.

One's metaphysical conclusions may be derived from empirical research; one's values may be determined as an empiricist would determine them; one may, that is, arrive at a theory of reality and a theory of value *through* a theory of knowledge. But it is here asserted that whatever the source of value and whatever the test of value may be—and these are, in a sense, inquiries in epistemology—the place of education in the general scheme of one's philosophy of education is an expression of his value-theory.¹

The function of epistemology in educational theory is to indicate means, whereas the drawing of conclusions as to ends in education is in great measure, if not entirely, the function of axiology. To assert that one's value-theory is determined by the methods of empiricism, for instance, as many assuredly are, is to assert only in a narrow and technical sense that one's theory of education is derived from his epistemology. All education is, in this sense, expressive of a view about

¹ Dewey himself once insisted that "philosophy is concerned with determining the ends of education while the science of education determines the means to be used," a distinction which he did not consistently maintain. See Dewey's *Sources of ■ Science of Education* (New York, 1929), p. 55.

knowledge; all value is determined by *some* epistemological means. But in a much more practical and direct way all theory of education is derived from and expressive of a theory of value.

The system or institution of education is a major instrument for reflecting the values cherished by a given society. Those values may be specifically religious, political, or intellectual, or any combination of them; or they may be specifically non-religious, non-political, non-social, or non-intellectual, in whole or in part. Education as an institution does not conceive values; it only reflects them. The individual who creates, administers, determines, or interprets a particular educational system does so in keeping with the values he cherishes or is motivated to promulgate by other values which he cherishes more. Education is therefore directly an expression of beliefs about value, and if the educational system is a philosophically oriented one, it reflects a theory of value.

The individual or group responsible for an educational system will, if the system is a philosophically oriented one, assert a theory of reality and a theory of knowledge as well as a theory of value. In certain cases that educational system may even be in great measure an expression of that theory of reality or of knowledge. That is, the values one cherishes and seeks to promulgate through education may have been derived from or may directly reflect conclusions as to reality or knowledge. But even in such an instance the educational system itself exists as an expression of and as an instrument for the preservation of or promulgation of the thing valued. "The thing valued" may be a theory of knowledge or of reality. But its function as a motivating factor of an educational system is a function of value rather than of knowledge or of reality.

A private or parochial school often reflects a different view of knowledge or of reality from that of a public school, and in most cases a public school will employ teachers and teach pupils who have varied theories of knowledge and reality, some of which agree with those which motivate the private or parochial school and some of which are in conflict. But the public school exists, although it incorporates theories of reality and knowledge which accord with those of private and parochial schools, because of and as an expression of differences in value-theory.

Any exception—e.g., any educational system which is built wholly on a theory of knowledge—must specifically deny value as a prime motivating factor, and surely this is an absurdity. The philosophy of instrumentalism of John Dewey purports to have no end, to place all emphasis and the only emphasis on theory of knowledge. Dewey's theory of knowledge is empiricism; it holds that learning comes by sensation through the scientific or problem-solving method. But is it not clear that following such a train of thought makes an end of the means itself; that is, that value inheres in the method? Therefore any educational system having a philosophical base is an expression of value-theory, even if it specifically repudiates value-theory.

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When Do They Decide to Teach?

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As the teacher shortage threatens to reach even more acute proportions, a number of interested parties have begun to discuss means of alleviating this problem by suggesting new approaches to the recruitment of teachers. In addition to the obvious measure of making a career in teaching more attractive financially to potential teachers, some educators have mentioned recruiting into teaching people who have given little if any thought to a career in teaching. Many of the Master of Arts in Teaching programs, for example, are intended to afford students who have graduated from liberal arts colleges an inexpensive opportunity to prepare for teaching relatively late in their school careers. Several emergency programs have been established to train housewives to become elementary school teachers. Although commendable in some respects, neither of these programs gives promise of reducing the teacher shortage on any appreciable quantitative basis.

Strangely, little attention has been devoted to determining empirically the age at which people decide to become teachers. If teachers or teachers-in-training make their career choices at certain points in their school careers, it would appear that attempts to recruit teachers might be especially effective at these ages. This paper reports the results of a questionnaire study of the age of the decision to become a teacher of 488 students, 365 females and 123 males, who were enrolled in a first course in Education at The Ohio State University in the Autumn Quarter of the 1958-59 Academic Year. Approximately eighty percent of these students were freshmen. Among a number of other things, these students were asked to respond anonymously to the question, "At what age did you first decide to become a teacher?"

An analysis of responses revealed that the age of the decision to teach ranged from five to forty for females and from ten to twenty-eight for males. The mean age of the decision to teach was 15.08 years for

females (S.D. = 1.60) and 17.5 years for males (S.D. = 1.44). Obviously, females decide to become teachers earlier in life than do males. In part, this difference can be explained by the opportunity that girls have to identify with their grade school teachers, the vast majority of whom are women. Males, on the other hand, often do not decide to become teachers until they have become dissatisfied with their status in a program other than teacher education. In fact, more than a third of the study group males had transferred into Education—and this relatively early in their college careers. We must not, in this respect, rush to the hasty conclusion that males who transfer into Education are poor students or insincere in their commitment to teaching. Interviews with a number of these students have convinced the investigator that many of them are seriously interested in teaching and give promise of becoming effective teachers. Further, a number of studies have shown that transfer students are one of the major sources of male secondary school teachers.

The statistics cited in the preceding paragraph suggest that whereas girls might well be recruited into teaching in the junior high school and high school years, boys are more susceptible to a commitment to teaching in the latter part of their high school years and in their early years in college. These factors should receive strong consideration in any concentrated effort to recruit teachers.

Another Approach to Cooperative Educational Research

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Increased emphasis on cooperative educational research as a way to improve education has been noticeable for some time. Concurrently, the lack of quality in educational research has been pointed out. It is fast becoming more widely recognized that research efforts must be coordinated if research is to accomplish for education what it has accomplished in other fields. The need for cooperative efforts in educational research seems clear.

With this belief in mind, Dean E. B. Robert of the College of Education, Louisiana State University, used his considerable influence to help organize a research group to be called the Louisiana Education Research Association. This organization is an association of member organizations interested in and participating in public education in Louisiana.

Member organizations are represented by an Executive Council, which acts as the governing body of the Association. The Executive Council elects a president and other officers from its membership, except that the president does not have to be a member of the Council. The Associate Director of the Bureau of Educational Materials and Research, Louisiana State University, serves as Executive Secretary for the Association and performs the usual duties of such a position. The Louisiana State Department of Education has a representative on the Executive Council in an advisory capacity. Members of the Graduate Committee on Research, Department of Education, Louisiana State University, serve in a similar capacity.

Member organizations with representation on the Executive Council are:

1. Colleges of Education in public institutions of higher learning
2. Department of Classroom Teachers of Louisiana

3. Louisiana Principals Association
4. Louisiana Superintendents Association
5. Louisiana School Supervisors Association
6. Visiting Teachers Association of Louisiana
7. Louisiana Teachers' Association
8. Louisiana School Boards Association
9. Delta Kappa Gamma of Louisiana
10. Phi Delta Kappa (Louisiana Chapters)
11. Alpha Delta Kappa of Louisiana

The Executive Council is charged with the following responsibilities:

1. Recommending, planning, and approving study projects
2. Cooperating in carrying out studies
3. Assisting in disseminating and implementing research findings
4. Encouraging the establishment of research committees within member organizations

Members of the Executive Council serve as contacts to encourage the formation of research committees in their respective organizations, suggest needed research studies, and otherwise boost educational research as a way to improve public education. Suggested research projects are screened by the Graduate Research Committee. Tentative plans for projects are considered and approved or rejected by the Executive Council. The Executive Council also must approve all plans for publishing and distributing copies of completed research studies.

Financing of research projects and the publishing and distribution of studies comes from two main sources. Services of the Bureau of Educational Materials and Research, College of Education, Louisiana State University, have been placed at the disposal of the research association. Personnel of the Bureau are a Director, an Associate Director, a Stenographer, a Clerk-Typist, and several Graduate Assistants. The Director and Associate Director hold faculty rank in the Department of Education and teach part-time with the balance of their time available for research. Also available are the services of the University Computer Research Center. The Louisiana School Boards Association each year makes an allotment that covers most of the cost of printing

and distributing reports of completed research studies.

The Louisiana Education Research Association has so far sponsored and completed the following studies:

1. The Effect of Industrial Tax Exemptions on Local School Revenues in Louisiana
2. Income and Occupations of Graduates of Louisiana State University and State-Supported Colleges
3. Married Students in Louisiana High Schools
4. Policies and Regulations of Louisiana School Boards
5. College Scholarships in Louisiana

Underway or being considered are studies concerning:

1. An Analysis of School Finance in Louisiana
2. In-Service Education Programs for Teachers

The cooperation necessary to carry out the research projects has aided in developing mutual trust and understanding among the member organizations. Also, the Association has served as a valuable contact between the College of Education at the University and the sixty-seven public school systems in Louisiana. Member organizations, being on the scene of action, have provided valuable assistance in planning, accomplishing, and implementing the research studies.

Thus far, the research projects suggested, planned, and approved by the Executive Council of the Association have been carried out by the staff of the Bureau of Educational Materials and Research at Louisiana State University. The successful completion of these projects, however, depended on the cooperation and assistance of school personnel represented by the organizations in the research association. Member organizations and individuals are encouraged to engage in needed research, and submit reports on their studies. Cooperative efforts such as those described here may help to gain for educational research the important position it should occupy in the field of education.

Letter from Australia

Dear Editor:

I have recently read an article in your January 1961 issue concerning America's prestige in this part of the globe. As the writer, J. D. McAulay, was a colleague of mine during his stay in Australia and has since become a close friend, I crave your permission to comment on some of the points Dr. McAulay has made.

Let me first dispel an illusion that may come from reading the article. Australians, and I should imagine New Zealanders, do not dislike Americans. Personally you are easier to get on with than Englishmen. You are enquirers and you speak your minds; and nothing could be less like the Hollywood Americans than the Americans I have met.

However, you all seem very concerned about our opinions of Americans in the mass when you have had time to reflect on us and our attitudes. You seem almost to expect that you, as a race, are at odds with the rest of the world and it seems to worry you. Are you hypercritical or do you lack confidence in America as the leader of the Western world? Why should you, as a nation, be liked? You are sitting on top and if there is one Australian trait that is universal it is our ability and desire to criticise our superiors. But really, you Americans, as we have seen you, set a high standard in self criticism yourselves. The frankness of your criticism of the part the U.S. has played in post war affairs has perhaps been one of the factors that has made us expect surprising turns in American policy.

There are, though, some aspects of the mirrored view of America that we get through the looking glass of your press and films that do not help you.

Firstly, these glossy automobiles that Dr. McAulay describes as "long and beautiful." They are certainly long, in fact most of them are almost too long for the average Australian garage. But beautiful? I am not so sure. Vance Packard tells us confidently that the current American autos are not only means of transport—they are expressions of personality. It seems to me that they allow the weak to pretend he's

strong, the failure to pretend he's a success, and much more in this vein. But there has grown up a feeling about them in Australia—the feeling that the slick get-rich-quick business man, the jockey, the book-maker, etc. will drive American autos, but when one has really arrived and is secure one will switch to a Rolls-Bentley. That comparison may bring a smile to the same Dr. McAulay. But really and truly your autos do come perilously close to offending principles of good design. They are ostentatious, they seem built to live but a day. Can you imagine the chagrin of the Australian bookmaker who buys a new American car and the same week reads in *Saturday Evening Post* of a new model of the same car which dulls the expanse of chrome on his new purchase. Have your motivational research psychologists sold you down the river? So often the typical Englishman expresses his personality by driving a car somewhat older than his neighbour's. Or is the English car just a better piece of workmanship? Secretly we all long for these shark-like monstrosities while we content ourselves with our second-hand Holdens. But don't delude yourselves that you are the only ones who have discovered hire purchase. No longer does the Australian own much. He is running as fast as he can to the fox-hole of buying on terms everything from the membership of his professional association to holiday expenses.

But you would be criticised more trenchantly for your foreign affairs policy than for anything else. Is your general approach to foreign policy a shining new automobile also? So often you seem to change it for a new model which then turns out to be only a little different in that it has more chrome, a little larger body. Again I am not sure that your fanfare as you enter the lists with the Soviet Union is not an expression of lack of confidence that you can carry the day. It does seem, quite often, that you enter the lists so full of confidence to end the day somewhat bedraggled. Do you Americans really feel you are right in your attitude to Cuba? If you are right in Cuba can you also be right in Laos? The most damning indictment I have read of your policy in Laos came from an issue of your own reputable magazine, "Time." I don't think an Englishman would be so critical of his government's actions as that article was of your action in Laos. It is no use saying that Russia is worse than you are. You see, we

expect that of Russia but you are the team we are rooting for and we reserve our most searching criticism for you on that account. I can't agree that Khrushchev gets more accurate reporting than does Kennedy or did Dulles or Eisenhower. I think, if anything, our papers went to such great pains to put the Russian leader in a bad light that it became so obvious that the desired result was not achieved but the reverse often was.

I agree though that you have tended to follow Russia. An Australian tour by the Czech Philharmonic Orchestra in 1959 was such a success that it was followed in 1960 by a tour by the Boston Symphony Orchestra. Rumour has it in Australia that that visit was a "top-level" answer to the fine impression the Czech orchestra created. It was unfortunate that the organization of the American tour was not as thorough as that for the Czech orchestra.

I personally know of no teachers or students who have visited Russia but there are many who have benefited by exchanges with American counterparts. What little contact we have had with Russian education authorities has been in the exchange of syllabuses and I must confess that I was surprised to learn how keen the Russians were to take part in this.

But surely if you were confident that you were right, you would not need to look over your shoulder so much to see what the Russians were doing. You would not perhaps be looking for so much justification from others for what you are doing. That will be the real test of your "free enterprise." If the *right* action at any time is the action of free enterprise, rather than the idea that free enterprise is right or wrong will be the acid test.

May President Kennedy's soul searching be deep and honest, because we need you and we have at times had the uneasy feeling that your leadership was not as confident as we would desire.

Finally, in matters of education you have left us stranded. You know that we tend to adopt your education theories—to adopt them when they are twenty or thirty years old and just when you are about to trade them in for a new model. We have no sooner come to really appreciate the concept of the child centered school when we get an uneasy feeling that we are wearing last season's fashions. Your ideas

of what school should offer the youth of today seemed, in theory, so right. But the awful feeling that it has failed you is growing and that you must now compromise and in some ways put the clock back. May your education withstand the pressure of space projects and the Russian-American rat race. In this field you have one great America's idea, great because it seems to me to be sound and to have the ring of truth.

So let us say that we reserve the right to be critical of you but we do really like you. Perhaps our greatest fault is our lack of discrimination in accepting your culture for although we criticise so much of what you send us we still turn to it. For what reason, sometimes I am not sure. I suppose it is because the image you give us is not that of a foreign culture but of a world which we imagine ourselves a part. I wonder if you have concentrated too much on giving the world what it wants, rather than what it needs?

J. F. HAIG
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PEABODY BIMONTHLY BOOKNOTES

Selected Professional and Cultural Books for a Teacher's Library

SEPTEMBER, 1961

Booknotes Committee: Susan B. Riley, William A. FitzGerald, and Norman Frost, Chairman.

Secretary to the Committee: Lou Ann Warren

Annotators for this Issue: William M. Alexander, Jack Allen, Louis V. Anderson, Robert E. Bays, Myrtle Bomar, John E. Brewton, Beatrice M. Clutch, James W. Colmey, Kenneth Cooper, W. E. DeLoach, John T. Douty, Norman Frost, William J. Griffin, Clifton L. Hall, Katherine Hall, Donald Neville, Winnie Mooney, D. Olson, D. C. Perry, Juanita Prater, Anna Loe Russell, H. C. Sipe, Robert Polk Thomson, Rodney Tillman, Ned L. Warren, J. Russell Whitaker, Scott S. Withrow.

Art

WEISS, HARVEY. *Pencil, Pen and Brush*. Scott, 1961. 63p. \$3.50.

A useful source for the intermediate elementary school pupil. The techniques of drawing proffered by the author are such that they will encourage the development of the learner's individuality. Excellent illustrations are included from the works of such artists as DaVinci, Degas and Klee.

Children's Literature

ADDINGTON, LUTHER. *Sugar in the Gourd*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 128p. \$2.95.

The Goodloe family lives in what we take to be rural South, for children, parents, Grandma, and Teeny, being the baby, too little to do anything. Beginning with New Year and Father Goodloe's promise of a reward to the child who does the best thing during the year, the reader follows this loving, country family through the four seasons on the farm and Christmas and the reward. Middle elementary children will enjoy reading this story.

ADSHEAD, GLADYS L. *Smallest*

Brownie's Fearful Adventure. Walck, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

This charming story about Brownies and children is just right for "Brownie-aged" children. On Midsummer Eve the Smallest Brownie wished himself a house. Grandpa and Grandma's grandchildren Chip and Pixies did some wishing too. Everything turns out just fine for the Smallest Brownie and for Chip and Pixies, too.

ALBERTS, FRANCES JACOBS. *A Gift for Genghis Khan*. McGraw Hill, 1961. 112p. \$2.75.

The traditions and times of Genghis Khan hold a fascination wherever he is mentioned, but little has been written for the elementary with this background. This story, dealing as it does with the adventure of a boy who owed his life to the great Khan and who has the problem of finding a gift for the great one, will fill this need for the middle elementary reader.

ALEXANDER, ANNE. *Boats and Ships from A to Z*. Rand-McNally, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

Unusual boats and ships are included in this alphabetical arrangement; the twenty-six choices being well described and

illustrated. Young readers will be pleased with the large clear type, the imaginative writing, as well as the colorful illustrations which accompany each selection. Recommended wherever brief information is sufficient.

ALLAN, MABEL ESTHER. *Catrin in Wales*. Vanguard, 1961. 204p. \$3.00.

Eighteen-year-old Catrin was just out of business school. London born and reared she went on a walking trip to Wales, her mother's home, just for a few days. The country seemed desolate and lonely to her. Then her Aunt becomes ill, and Catrin took her place as custodian of a half-ruined monastery. The story of her courage, resourcefulness, friendships and loyalties ends in romance. The book is well written and makes for excellent reading for junior and senior high school girls.

ANDREWS, MARY EVANS. *Hostage to Alexander*. Longman's, 1961. 244p. \$3.75.

This historical novel is among the better ones of its kind. The setting is with Alexander the Great. A thrilling plot with plenty of tension and adventure is combined skillfully with careful attention to authenticity of detail and characters. Fine reading for junior and senior high school ages.

ARMSTRONG, WARREN. *Sea Phantoms*. John Day, 1961. 220p. \$4.00.

Story of ships and sailors, murders, ghosts, mysteries, oceans and haunted vessels. Boys who love adventure stories will be glad to have found this one. The story is companion to author's *Tales of Tall Ships*, *Last Voyage*, and other strange tales he has gathered from all his travels around the world.

AYMAR, PEGGY AND GORDON. *Michael Sails the Mud Hen*. Hastings House, 1961. 48p. \$3.50.

Young boat enthusiasts will love this story of Michael and his adventures in learning to sail. It is one of those stories which gives real information along in the midst of an interesting plot. Excellent format and beautiful illustrations throughout. Highly recommended.

BAGLEY, JOHN JOSEPH. *Life in*

Medieval England. Putnam, 1960. 175p. \$3.50.

The high school reader should get some taste of Medieval thought and life from reading Bagley's illustrated work. How men and women made a living and enjoyed life in England is the theme of the book, with separate chapters on life in the castle, town, village, monastery, and university. A must for the school library.

BALL, ZACHARY. *KEP*. Holiday House, 1961. 207p. \$2.95.

Kep, a fifteen-year-old boy leaves his familiar home in the Florida scrub and moves to a strange town. He finds new problems as he becomes a substitute son in a family. He makes friends with Link Wybel, a person much like himself, who loves the woods. This friend is a help to him by suggesting that he should not run away from his problems. Recommended for both boys and girls. Ages 12-16.

BARR, GEORGE. *More Research Ideas for Young Scientists*. McGraw Hill, 1961. 147p. \$3.00.

An interesting adequately illustrated instruction book of eighty personal investigations for intermediates interested in science. All fields of science are included. The answers can be found—the author refrains from giving them. Such a policy teaches the ways of scientists.

BENEDICT, BART. *Aluminum*. Lane, 1961. 65p. \$2.95.

Only rarely is an account of an important metal industry written so accurately and illustrated so colorfully for students in the middle grades. A rich resource book for the classroom library.

BENNETT, EVE. *Little Bit*. Messner, 1961. 189p. \$2.95.

Ruth Merrill gave up her sweetheart and an opportunity for a happy future to help her spastic sister. She used her college savings to take Naomi to Denver, hoping something might be done for her.

This story is filled with deep emotion, taking us into the very core of a problem which many families face today. It is a love story of deep tenderness.

BERGAUST, ERIK. *Rocket Aircraft, USA*. Putman, 1961. 48p. \$2.52.

An interesting illustrated and authentic description of publicly announced craft of this type. Will challenge the imagination of the space minded.

BERGAUST, ERIK. *Rockets to the Moon*. Putnam, 1961. 48p. \$2.50.

Visionary in outlook, but not space fiction, the well-illustrated text will appeal to creative teenagers interested in science and engineering. It is the type of book that leads youth to think and to wonder.

BETTS, MIRIAM. *Tomboy Teacher*. Messner, 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

When Nancy returns to her home town, she has to live down her tomboy past before she is accepted as a mature adult and proves herself as a teacher in an antiquated grade school system where she introduces methods of education. Nancy encounters both romance and adventure during her first year.

BEYER, AUDREY. *Sapphire Pendant*. Knopf, 1961. 178p. \$2.95.

The adventure of a daring, loyal English girl during the time that England was at war with Napoleon. The status of various family members, the transfer of property, the social background of the time are all well presented for junior high school readers. The adventures include some exciting escapades, a near death climax and a happy ending. Brief enough to hold the attention of even slow readers at that level.

BISHOP, CURTIS. *Lone Star Leader*. Messner, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

Any reader who starts this book will not want to lay it aside until it is completed! The moving story of Sam Houston's poignant defeats and victories has been skillfully captured by Curtis Bishop in this biography. Especially suited for upper-elementary and junior high school ages.

BLATTER, DOROTHY. *Cap and Candle*. Westminster, 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

This sensitive absorbing novel opens with Filis' departure for the American Girls' School in Uskudar, Turkey. Her decision to learn nursing is a shock to her family,

for in Turkey decent girls never enter such a profession. Her fictional, romantic fate and her struggle to reconcile old loyalties and customs with new ideas and practices filled the story with tenderness and excitement. The writing is beautiful; the dialogue is lively. This book has everything to be popular with teenage girls.

BORG, INGA. *Plupp Builds a House*. Warne, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

He had blue hair, a very red nose, and black eyes. He was an elf, but had no house. So he built one; but he had lots of help. Some of the boys and girls about five or six years old to whom this story is read would like to live in such a house. Most of them would like to have helped build it.

BORRESON, MARY JO. *Let's Go to Colonial Williamsburg*. Putnam, 1961. 48p. \$1.86.

Young elementary readers interested in the nation's early history, will enjoy this brief but adequate description of this famous settlement. The format is good and the drawings interesting and add much to the story. Recommended.

BOWEN, ROBERT. *Million Dollar Rookie*. Lothrop, 1961. 189p. \$3.00.

Exciting action filled baseball story of Teddy Wells, the million dollar rookie. How he proved himself, won the respect of his teammates, the Chicago Ravens, and changed from a rich playboy to a serious minded man will interest all young baseball fans. Recommended for junior and senior high students.

BRANLEY, FRANKLYN. *Exploring By Astronaut*. Crowell, 1961. 104p. \$3.50.

A well known author presents this contemporary Project Mercury Story in a lively and informative manner. Authoritative and illustrated text make this book very readable for the interested reader from 14 to 70.

BRANLEY, FRANKLYN. *What Makes Day and Night*. Crowell, 1961. unp. \$1.95.

Effective presentation of the concept of the rotating earth for the young child. Illustrations provide directions for experiences.

BROOKS, ANITA. *Picture Book of Fisheries*. John Day, 1961. 96p. \$3.29.

This presentation of fishing in all parts of the world through photographs with explanatory captions is written for the 9-12-year-old, but provides rich resource material for persons of any age. The first in the series, *Picture Aids to World Geography*, this book will contribute to greater understanding of people and their work. An excellent supplement for social studies.

BROWNER, RICHARD. *Everyone Has A Name*. Walck, 1961. unpag. \$2.75.

A beginning to read book with intriguing illustrations. Brief text limited to a rhyming couplet accompanying each picture. Fourteen different animals are introduced in vivid unusual drawings. Very nice format.

BUCKLEY, HELEN. *Grandmother and I*. Lothrop, 1961. unpag. \$2.75.

A little girl finds a number of reasons why Grandmother's lap is just right. Other children about 3 to 6 or 7 will agree with her, and enjoy the pictures that prove the points.

BUEHR, WALTER. *World of Marco Polo*. Putnam, 1961. 91p. \$2.81.

The Polos are said to have "traveled farther, saw stranger sights and had more hair-raising adventures than any man then alive or for a hundred years afterward." This account of their travels and the vivid descriptions of the life and lands from Venice to Cathay will enable young readers to enjoy many of those adventures vicariously.

CALHOUN, MARY. *Cowboy Cal and the Outlaw*. Morrow, 1961. 48p. \$2.50.

This hilarious tale of young Cal and his pursuit of his saddle on the back of a runaway outlaw horse is delightful. It is skilfully told just to suit lower grade children who still delight in their cowboy togs.

CARTER, ERNEST. *The Boy's Book of World Railways*. Roy, 1961. 144p. \$3.75.

Beautiful photographs, numerous illustrations, and well arranged text make this book a good choice for upper elementary readers. Special trains, tracks and their

upkeep, diesel engines, safety devices, every aspect involved is well presented. We wish the book could have been made more sturdily.

CASE, ELINOR. *Yankee Traitor, Rebel Spy*. Westminster, 1961. 204p. \$2.95

Relates the story of Charlie Castle, Union soldier, who succeeds in helping to capture a traitor only to find that his cousin, a Rebel spy, is involved. Very well written and would be enjoyed by young adults who find pleasure in reading exciting war stories.

CAUGHRAN, ALEX M.; MOUNTAIN, LEE H. *High School Reading—Book I*, American Book Co., 1961. 479p. \$4.48.

CAVANNAH, FRANCES. *Adventure in Courage*. Rand-McNally, 1961. 111p. \$2.95.

This biography not only reveals the courage of a young man, but also literally sparkles with account of episodes in the life of Theodore Roosevelt. One will not doubt his statement, "I put myself in the way of things happening and they happened," after reading this delightful and heart-warming story.

CHENEY, CORA. *Underseas*. Coward-McCann, 1961. 121p. \$2.95.

Challenging story about underseas investigators and their equipment. Written for boys and girls of junior high school age. Students will find this unusually attractive reference material.

CLEARY, BEVERLY. *Two Dog Biscuits*. Morrow, 1961. unpag. \$2.75.

Janet and Jimmy were twins. They found out something about dog biscuits that mother did not know, and father did not know. Children about 4 to 7 will be interested to find out what it was.

CLEVEN, CATHERINE. *Flight Angel*. Reilly & Lee, 1961. 192p. \$3.50.

Not able to finish college and disillusioned with men, Coral Sands begins a new life as she fulfills her desire to become an airline stewardess. A voodoo doll provides mystery and a young Marine pilot helps restore Coral's trust in men. Will appeal to teenage girls.

CLEWES, DOROTHY. *Mystery of the Singing Strings*. Coward McCann, 1961. 256p. \$3.00.

A story of suspense, mystery, and intrigue concerned with an international spy ring and the three Hadley children. What happens when the Hadleys try to solve the mystery makes interesting reading for the intermediate grades. It is well written, with many illustrations.

COHEN, FLORENCE. *Portrait of Deborah*. Messner, 1961. 191p. \$2.95.

Story of a Jewish girl's senior year in high school as she adjusts to the problems of changing schools, meeting anti-Semitism, a love affair on the sly, and losing a music scholarship. Her relationship to her family is true to life. Mature girls will read this portrait with empathy and understanding.

COLBY, C. B. *Night People*. Coward McCann, 1961. 48p. \$2.50.

Pictorial study of men who work at night. Primarily for grades 2-5.

COLVER, ANNE. *Nobody's Birthday*. Knopf, 1961. unpag. \$2.75.

Here was a perfectly good birthday, complete with presents, decorations and refreshments, and it took a lot of doing to get it to belong to somebody most of the children would not guess to be the owner. The boldly imaginative story and tantalizing illustrations embody the thrills of birthdays in a way to delight the hearts of children in the lower grades.

COOKE, DONALD. *Men of Sherwood*. Holt, Rinehart, 1961. 214p. \$3.95.

Some of the magic of the Robin Hood tales is maintained in this story of some of the things that happened after Robin Hood's death. Unfortunately there is a plot, but otherwise the charm and enchantment is there. For junior high school reading and for others who still enjoy Robin Hood.

DAVIS, RUSSELL G., ASHABRANNER, B. K. *The Choctaw Code*, McGraw Hill, 1961. 142p. \$3.00.

A touching story of a 15-year-old boy's newly found friendship for Jim, a Choctaw Indian, who is condemned to die according to the Choctaw Code for a shooting which

was unintentional. Especially outstanding is Jim's decency and courage in accepting his penalty, and Tom's eventual understanding of a code of life entirely foreign to him. Students who enjoy Indian stories will especially like this one.

DE LA MARE, WALTER JOHN. *Stories From the Bible*. Knopf, 1961. 420p. \$4.95.

From Adam and Eve to King David, the people of the Bible step out to relive their lives for the reader. The author has written in dramatic narrative form, yet has retained the truths in the Bible and the magnificence of God. Black and white illustrations supplement the text. Recommended for all grades.

DENNEBORG, H. M. *The Only Horse for Jan*. McKay, 1961. 122p. \$2.95.

The story of a wild horse from the plains, translated from German by Emile Capouya. Jan is the boy owner, and Natz is the hired man, who embellishes everything he says with quotations from Knipperdolling. Balthasar is the horse, that with his owner will take full possession of the hearts of children about 7 to 11. A tale with humor and tenderness blended.

DERLETH, AUGUST. *The Ghost of Blackberry Island*. Sloan and Pearce, 1961. 151p. \$3.00.

This interesting and highly improbable tale concerns Steve Grendan and Slim Jones and their fishing and camping trip to Blackberry Island. Someone tried to scare them, and it took time and some courage to find the real culprit, a thief who had hidden his loot on the island. Easy and light reading for junior high school ages.

DUNCAN, CLYDE H. *Find A Career in Agriculture*. Putnam, 1961. 160p. \$2.75. Find a Career series.

For the explorator stages of guidance this book and the others in the series are excellent. The treatment is elementary, of course, since the book is intended for pupils 11 to 15. Even so it is surprising that Mr. Duncan failed to mention some half a million jobs with farmer cooperatives, sort of sublimated hired hands working for organized groups of farmers.

EMERY, ANNE. *The Popular Crowd*. Westminster, 1961. 171p. \$2.95.

Sue Morgan wants desperately to be a popular girl, but to be in the "Popular Crowd" she discovers she has to pay a tremendous price and she isn't sure she wants to. This is a compelling story telling how this girl who is confronted with the problems of sexual love discovers the true source and meaning of her own personal worth.

EVANS, KATHERINE. *A Camel in the Tent*. Whitman, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.25.

The fable of the camel crowding his master out of the tent is retold and refurbished to win the fancies of little boys and girls about 3 to 5 years old. The story is made even more appealing by the intriguing illustrations by the author.

FELTON, RONALD OLIVER. *Escape from France*. Criterion, 1961. 183p. \$3.50.

Richard Carey seems somewhat of a playboy at Oxford, but when he goes to France to help rescue some of his relatives from the atrocities of the revolution he proves equal to all the threats and perils, which are many. Smugglers, duels, treachery, bribery, pistols, gambling gangs, disguises and plots are all here. A thriller for boys of high school age.

FISHER, LEONARD. *Pumpers, Boilers, Hooks and Ladders*. Dial, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.75.

This history of fire engines written for the young reader, will be read eagerly and re-read many times. The length is good, the page arrangement interesting, and the vivid red illustrations, double spread, are very exciting. We think it is about perfect.

FLOHERTY, JOHN. *Whirling Wings*. Lippincott, 1961. 156p. \$3.00.

Engaging collection of anecdotes on the function and history of a helicopter is the subject of this book written for the upper elementary and early junior high school boys.

FOSTER, DORIA. *A Pocketful of Seasons*. Lothrop, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.75.

This beautifully illustrated book makes a brief survey of the year, built on points a child would notice first. The chief characteristic of each season is well presented in colorful pictures, accompanied by a brief text. This is a nice addition for the collection of primary nature study.

FRIEDRICH, PRISCILLA AND OTTO. *Wishing Well in the Woods*. Lothrop, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.75.

The leopard started it when he wanted to change his spots. Then the elephant, crocodile, hyena, snake, turtle and all the rest of the animals wanted to change something, too. This ingenious story and the intriguing pictures make it clear to children in the lower grades how it came about that the leopard was the only one that got his wish.

FREEDMAN, RUSSELL. *Teenagers Who Made History*. Holiday House, 1961. 272p. \$3.50.

Twenty biographical stories of young people who had already earned places in history before they reached the age of twenty. Their interest and accomplishments were widely different, but each made an outstanding contribution to the world. Should be inspirational for today's teenagers.

FRIENDLICH, DICK. *Backstop Age*. Westminster, 1961. 187p. \$2.95.

Ace Elwood, a baseball catcher, finds it difficult to get along with a rookie pitcher just hired by the Eagles. Trying to give the boy the benefit of the doubt, Ace finally discovers the real source of their incompatibility.

FRY, ROSALIE. *The Mountain Door*. Dutton, 1961. 128p. \$2.95.

Young and old alike who believe in magic mists, leprechauns, and little people of Ireland, will be entranced with this delightful tale. Fenella, a fairy changeling never quite adjusted to the ways of humans. Her special fairy gift was with animals; these she collected in a great variety. Despite her nostalgia for freedom in the "Land of the Even Young" beyond the mountain door, she settles for a home on the open mountainside with her new found friends and beloved animals.

GARBUTT, BERNARD. *Roger the Rosin Back*. Hastings House, 1961. 48p. \$2.95.

Roger was just one of the big horses that pulled heavy loads for the circus. Children about 4 to 8 will love him, and follow with interest the way in which he became one of the horses that clowns and acrobats use in their stunts. Especially good just after children have been to the circus.

GARST, DORIS SHANNON. *Broken Hand Fitzpatrick*. Messner, 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

This is a biography, of historical adventure, depicting the Northwest through the life of Thomas Fitzpatrick (1799-1854), trapper, hunter, guide, and Indian agent. It is a book with a fast moving plot that will interest boys from grades 5 to 9.

GOUDEY, ALICE E. *The Day We Saw the Sun Come Up*. Scribners 1961. unp. \$2.95.

An unusual approach to the late primary science reader characterized by rhythmic prose, factual text, superimposed on colorfully illustrated pictures depicting a child's notion of the coming of day. This reviewer likes it.

GRAY, PATRICIA. *Loco the Bronc*. Coward McCann, 1961. 160p. \$3.50

In lively, exciting style the story of tomboy, Lynn, and a supposedly crazy, wild bronc, keep the reader in suspense. The bronc becomes ill, is healed, and eventually regains trust in mankind. Lynn wanted Loco for her very own, but the rodeo manager would not sell him unless Lynn would ride Loco in the arena. After performing with him, Lynn wins him. The human interest element creates for the tomboy a situation to entertain any horse lover.

HALL, MARJORY. *Bright Red Ribbon*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 246p. \$2.95.

Beverly, a shy common looking girl who works in the local press finds her life boring and lonely. Change came when Andy, the handsome out-of-town fellow comes into her life. They fell in love, but Beverly tries to attract him by imitating the worldly girls. Andy's self confidence almost ruins their

love. Story ends well with Andy's cure of pride and Beverly's lesson to be one's self and make the best of it. Good depiction of the loneliness of a young girl.

HEATH, MAY. *Iowa Hannah*. Hastings House, 1961. 117p. \$2.75.

The story of Iowa Hannah, one member of a pioneer family, includes true incidents from life in early American settlements which were related to the author by her grandmother. Young readers will follow Hannah's actions with interest in the accounts of a real Indian scare, a pioneer Christmas, and the coming of the circus.

HEIMAN, GROVER. *Jet Tanker*. Holt, Rinehart, 1961. 189p. \$3.50.

An exciting and dramatic novel based on the experiences of an over confident and careless young pilot training with a Strategic Air Command fueling squadron. Since he did not qualify as a pilot, he was shipped to a new base and given one more chance. Jack finally is able to prove himself and to be accepted on the Air Force Team. Teaches a good lesson on the importance of teamwork and of assuming responsibility.

HIRSHBERG, AL. *The Man Who Fought Back*. Messner, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

A true story of one of the most colorful players in major-league baseball. In spite of numerous injuries and illnesses, Red Schoendienst, with his remarkable fighting spirit, refuses to quit. His brilliant career remains an inspiration to all in the baseball world. An informative and well-written biography for Junior and Senior high.

HOGAN, INEZ. *Lone Wolf*. Dutton, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

This story is one with a lesson for children who have difficulty in adjusting to the group. Little Sheela, the smallest cub in the wolf family, wants to be the leader. When her brother is chosen, she goes off by herself. When she finally finds a mate and has cubs of her own, she teaches them to take turns in leadership. This book is for children 4 to 7.

HOLBROOK, SABRA. *Capital Without a Country*. Coward McCann, 1961. 121p. \$2.95.

Excellent photographs plus well-written, vivid descriptions make this story of the rebuilding of West Berlin highly interesting and informative. Recommended for ages 10-15.

HURD, EDITH. *Sandpipers*. Crowell, 1961. unpaginated. \$1.95.

Carefully done illustrations make this text of the book comprehensible both to the land-locked and the shore-based primary child.

JACKSON, CARRY PAUL. *Bullpen Bargain*. Hastings House, 1961. 157p. \$2.95.

Any Jackson book will appeal to the sports minded, but fans of baseball will find *Bullpen Bargain* an exceptionally fine story. The hero, who wins against such terrible odds as being traded to another club and being discriminated against by the catcher, is an inspiration to the reader.

JACKSON, EDGAR NEWMAN. *Green Mountain Hero*. Lantern Press, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

A truly heroic story, based on fact, of an early settler in Vermont. The hero is really a heroine, but her husband Amos and son Solomon are pretty wonderful, too. Suspense, endurance, brains, persistence and loyalty are all woven deftly into a story sure to appeal to upper grade children.

JANSSON, TOVE MARIKA. *Moominsummer Madness*. Walck, 1961. 163p. \$2.75.

In a most unusual tale of fantasy, some charming little creatures called Moomins are introduced. With their friends they experience the violence of the flood, the mystery of the theatre and other exciting adventures. Amusing reading for the young and the young at heart.

JOHNSON, MARGARET SWEET. *Bright Flash*. Morrow, 1961. 64p. \$2.50.

Helen's dog barked too much; he barked at everything. At last the family sent him away for special training until he was fully grown. He was alert and he learned well. Then one night he proved that he had learned when to bark and he also proved that he was a very brave dog. Second grade

readers will enjoy the large clear type, beautiful drawings by the author, as well as the interesting story. Recommended.

JONES, EVAN. *Trappers and Mountain Men*. Golden Press, 1961. 153p. \$3.50.

This addition to the American Heritage Junior Library Series is a well-written, colorful narrative of the early explorers of America. The well-chosen illustrations not only contribute greatly to the meaning of the text, but also add to the beauty of the book. An excellent supplement to any social studies collection.

JULINE, RUTH (BISHOP). *A Place for Johnny Bill*. Westminster, 1961. 143p. \$2.95.

Johnny Bill, although just nine years old, has already rebelled against the way his crop-picking family live, moving from one place to another wherever there is a crop to be harvested, with never more than a meal ahead. An accident sends them on the road again, hoping to find a job and perhaps a permanent place. They reach a desperate level even for them, when their luck changes. Johnny Bill's courage gets them what they want.

LENT, HENRY BOLLES. *Man Alive in Outer Space*. Macmillan, 1961. 147p. \$3.00.

An interesting, accurate, and contemporary book on the medical aspects of space flight. Appropriate for interested teen-agers and adults.

LESSER, MILTON. *Spacemen, Go Home*. Holt, Rinehart, 1961. 221p. \$2.95.

In this science-fiction story there is imagination in regard to scientific possibilities that is blended into a recognition of the persistence of the human individual. Andy is in process of being trained as a space man when some of the hot-heads of earth-men get crossed up with inter-galactic powers. Plenty of tense adventure for junior and possibly senior high school reading.

LEVINE, ISRAEL E. *Behind the Silken Curtain*. Messner, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

The story of how Townsend Harris, dip-

lomat, adventurer, explorer, pioneer in American education and founder of The College of the City of New York, becomes the first foreigner to lift the "silken curtain" of isolation from mysterious East. This is another fine biography for high school students.

MCCORMICK, WILFRED. *The Bluffer*. McKay, 1961. 151p. \$3.00.

A good baseball story, with plenty of hints on some of the fine points of play. This is another Bronc Burnett story, with Coach McCune and other old friends that will be welcomed by those who know the series, and will be new friends for those reading this as their first introduction to the characters. Junior high school reading.

MCCORMICK, WILFRED. *The Double Steal*. McKay, 1961. 180p. \$3.00.

The popular young coach, Rocky McCune, meets with a real-life problem involving Koulee's exciting baseball team. As they enter the important Divisional Tournament, the team is accused of dishonesty and Rocky is faced with one of the toughest decisions of his life. A dramatic sports story skillfully interwoven with bits of "inside" baseball, emphasizing good sportsmanship and honesty.

MCGIFFIN, LEE. *Pony Soldier*. Dutton, 1961. 160p. \$3.00.

Exciting account of two fifteen-year-old boys who enlisted in the Confederate Army, were captured by Union soldiers, fought Indians in the West and soon learned that the color of a man's uniform doesn't determine how courageous a soldier he really is. Teenagers will enjoy reading this account of the Civil War.

MCGRAW, ELOISE JARVUS. *The Golden Goblet*. Coward-McCann, 1961. 278p. \$3.50.

This story of ancient Egypt is in a carefully maintained authentic setting in thought and physical setting. The story concerns a boy interested in the craft of gold working who is under the control of a brutal half brother who is a stonecutter. His triumph over circumstances is accomplished with the help of friends, and there is a blending of tenderness and meanness of courage and excitement.

McKEE, ALEXANDER. *Strike from the Sky*. Little, Brown, 1961. 288p. \$4.75.

Realizing that no records were being kept of the Battle of Britain, Alexander McKee began to gather the first-hand information which is presented here in one of the fullest accounts of the battle which made Hitler decide to turn to the East.

McKOWN, ROBIN. *She Lived for Science*. Messner, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

A simply written and sympathetic story of Irene Joliot-Curie. The humanity of an outstanding woman; a Nobel Laureate, is emphasized in her quest for unlocking the secrets of induced radio activity. Good for grades seven through 10.

MALVERN, GLADYS. *Wilderness Island*. Macrae Smith, 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

This is a historical novel of an early Dutch settlement on Manhattan Island during the seventeenth century. It combines adventure, Indian warfare and the romance of Alida who had left her sweetheart far across the seas. Junior and senior girls will enjoy this romantic drama.

MASON, GEORGE. *Animal Baggage*. Morrow, 1961. 94p. \$2.50.

Many animals beside the familiar dog, cat, kangaroo, and crow, carry things about, as is well described in this account by a well known naturalist-author. Elementary readers interested in nature study will find unusual and valuable information in this handy book. The illustrations are black and white drawings by the author. Recommended.

MATIAS. *A Little Rabbit*. Walck, 1961. unpag. \$2.00.

This primary picture book written in line sentence text in both English and French, tells the story of a very humorous rabbit.

There is an exciting picture on each page, and beginning readers in French will enjoy it.

MATIAS. *Four Seasons*. Walck, 1961. unpag. \$2.00.

This primary picture book of the seasons is written in line sentence text in both the English and French. The illustrations

are unusual and very colorful, the format attractive. Its chief feature will be most useful wherever French is being introduced to the child.

MAY, JULIAN. *The Real Book About Robots and Thinking Machines*. Doubleday, 1961. 216p. \$1.95.

This is a timely, rudimentary survey of the current picture of robots, computers, automation of any sort, written for upper elementary and junior high school "good" minds. It is a difficult subject to simplify but, after a survey of the history and definition of robotry, the discussion follows more advanced robots into various usage today, then leaps into automation proper and some primary physics. The diagrams are simple and there is a glossary. This book should be very popular.

MEADOWCROFT, ENID LAMONTE. *Land of the Free*. Crowell, 1961. 151p. \$3.50.

A lively history of our nation for children, dealing primarily with the Colonial and Federal periods with an accent on military action and great personalities.

MEHDEVI, ANNE SINCLAIR. *The Leather Hand*. Knopf, 1961. 182p. \$3.00.

This mystery is classified as children's literature probably because a boy is the hero. Plot and writing make it equally interesting as escape reading for adults. The place is in the Mediterranean, the hero from Kansas, and other assorted characters. More thrills than mystery are found in this book.

MILLER, ALBERT G. *Silver Chief's Big Game Trail*. Holt, Rinehart, 1961. 191p. \$3.50.

Mr. Miller, a talented writer of thrillers for young people, has written this 6th book in the series about Silver Chief, the police dog with Sgt. Thorne of the Canadian Mounted Police. He has written up to the high standard set for this series by Jack O'Brien. A criminal wanted by the International Police Association leads the C. M. P. a bloody and tense trail across Canada and into the far North. For junior high school boys.

MILLER, HELEN MARKLEY. *Western Women*. Doubleday, 1961, 240p. \$2.95.

This volume contains biographies of fourteen women who had a part in settling the West. Through the eyes of these women are shown the motivations, the hardships, and the rewards of the westward movement. The author has presented both the flaws and virtues of these women in a realistic manner.

MITCHELL, ELYNE. *The Snow Filly*. Dutton, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

This is the story of a beautiful silver filly who because of her beauty must constantly fight for her freedom from both horse and man. The vivid description, the exciting, swift development of plot, create a tremendously strong feeling and mood which should make this book much loved and extensively read by those who enjoy horse stories.

MONCKTON, ELLA. *Tim Minds the Baby*. Warne, 1961. 43p. \$1.25.

Tim Water-Rat was given the job of caring for his baby sister. He left her alone for only a minute or two, but right then something happened. Very young readers who like animals will be interested to see how he solves his problem.

MUEHL, LOIS BAKER. *Worst Room in the School*. Holiday, 1961. 159p. \$2.75.

In a story with real pertinence for children in today's crowded schools this book tells how twelve sixth-grade children and their teacher solved their personal differences and also helped the parents decide whether to remodel the old or to build a new school.

NEAL, HARRY EDWARD. *Treasures by the Millions*. Messner, 1961. 192p. \$3.50.

A glance at the Smithsonian Institution and stories about its people, animals, and objects. Acquiring 52,000,000 treasures is a modern feat. The story behind some of the items is fascinating.

NEURATH, MARIE (Reidemeister). *Rockets and Jets*. Lothrop, 1961. 36p. \$2.00.

A simplified resumé of jet propulsion, this book is illustrated with diagrammatic isotype. The language is British and although this is the "new, revised edition" some of the facts are not new to us now. However, it is an excellent summary of the major phases in current aeronautics, readable at the fourth grade level and up.

NOBLE, IRIS. *William Shakespeare*. Messner, 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

Like many other fictionized biographies and histories this reconstruction of the life, work, and times of Shakespeare is both informative and stimulating. The reader's problem is to distinguish where reporting ends and imagination takes over.

NOONAN, MICHAEL. *Flying Doctor*. Day, 1961. 191p. \$3.50.

An exciting and inspiring story based on the facts of the Royal Flying Doctor Service in barren Australia, combined with elements of mystery and adventure. Good characterization but too many events running through the main theme. Ages ten to fifteen will enjoy this book.

O'BRIEN, BRIAN. *Windship Boy*. Dutton, 1961. 256p. \$3.50.

An orphan lad experiences two years of adventure as an apprentice on a tramp clipper ship. *Windship Boy* is full of enthusiasms of youth, desire for exploring unknown places and the fun of sea life. This is an action packed story that every young reader will enjoy.

ORBACH, RUTH. *Hannah the Helper*. Whitman, 1961. unpag. \$2.25.

Hannah came in by the day to help Mrs. Rabbit with the house work and the children. The story in an ingenious way helps children appreciate what mothers and their helpers do for them. The illustrations are beguiling, and help make this an appealing book for preschool children.

PALAZZO, TONY. *Let's Go to the Circus*. Doubleday, 1961. 88p. \$2.95.

This is another of Palazzo's wonderful picture books. Every child will be entranced by the animals and performers, particularly the clowns.

PARKER, ALFRED. *Crime Fighter*. Macmillan, 1961. 181p. \$3.00.

An excellent biography of August Vollmer, founder and promoter of our modern day police methods. The book vividly describes his invention and use of the lie detector, new fingerprint techniques and the promoting of scientific police training. The story of this man's dedication to the improvement of law enforcement should be an inspiration to all boys and girls.

PARKER, ROBERT. *Carol Heiss: Olympic Queen*. Doubleday, 1961. 128p. \$2.50.

Ice-skaters and those who have faith in the American dream would enjoy the easy-to-read story of the girl who was the first American to win a gold medal at the 1960 Olympics at Squaw Valley. Fulfilling the Olympic motto of "Citius, Altius, Fortius," Carol won fame and met her present husband. With purpose, sacrifice, and courage Carol achieves success and happiness.

PASCHAL, NANCY. *Song on the Heart*. Westminster, 1961. 218p. \$2.95.

Sweet and moving story of a young orphan girl who was "born to sing." How her career created jealousy, envy and heartache in her adopted family makes a very interesting story as well as teaching a lesson not to be soon forgotten. Her love affair with the son of a "snobbish" family will thrill teen-agers and romance lovers. Good reading.

PAULI, HERTHA. *Two Trumpeters of Vienna*. Doubleday, 1961. 184p. \$1.95.

Caspar and Franz were two young trumpeters in the Abbey of Heiligenkreuz who shared in Vienna's fight for freedom in 1683. They saw Vienna as a happy city when Kirmes was celebrated, and then as a sad city when it became an "island in a sea of fire." This is another Clarion book which features outstanding events in Catholic world history. These books are written especially for the teen-age group, and the vivid, descriptive account have high interest and strong appeal.

PEARSON, M. J. *Pony of the Sioux*. Doubleday, 1961. 143p. \$2.50.

This story tells about Lee Harding as he grows up in the West, when there were still Indian attacks and plenty of cattle to

herd. He has an Indian pony, a very smart dog, and there is excitement-a-plenty, which will fascinate middle elementary readers. Attractive format and very readable.

AMERICAN HERITAGE, 1961. *Pirates of the Spanish Main*. 153p. \$3.50.

The history of piracy, clearly told, and with sample sketches of the lives of some of the more notorious pirates. These sketches are of absorbing interest to young people and children. The accuracy of the material, and the superb illustrations are fully up to the high standards of this outstanding series.

POLLAND, MADELINE ANGELA. *Children of the Red King*. Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1961. 159p. \$3.00.

Grania, nine, and her brother Fergus, seven, are the children of the king of Connacht. The story is about the conquest of Ireland by the Normans, and the part these children play in helping bring peace to their part of the island. Grania is the heroine of this exciting tale, skillfully told for children in upper grades or junior high.

POLLAND, MADELEINE ANGELA. *Fingal's Quest*. Doubleday, 1961. 191p. \$1.95.

A marvelous presentation of the faith, or fanaticism (whichever one calls it) that actuated Christians of the dark ages in spreading the gospel and establishing religious foundations. The setting is Ireland and France in the time when the Irish monks were working in Gaul. The book is written for junior and senior high school reading.

POWELL, JOHN WESLEY. *The Exploration of the Colorado River and Its Canyons*. Dover, 1961. 400p. \$2.00.

A paper-back edition of one of the classics of American exploration literature. Clear print makes for easy reading. The book is beautifully illustrated with pen sketches.

PRIDDY, FRANCES. *Let's Go Steady*. Westminster, 1961. 185p. \$2.95

A story of romance between Pat Russell and Kirk Townsend, two high school students. They are probably the couple least likely to break up. But there is also the

work of the love gremlins. Joe Philips acts like a squirrel monkey between them. Pat does consider going steady again. Pat's experience can be significantly read by high school students.

RANDALL, JANET. *Saddles for Breakfast*. Longmans, 1961. 186p. \$3.25.

Robin Marshall, visiting her cousin's run-down riding academy in California, proves her genuine worth by re-instating the family's economic standing. A real horsewoman, with a willingness to work and the ability to make friends, Robin also improves the family relations and Butch's standing in the community. Teenagers should learn from this story that when they begin to accept responsibility they are growing up.

RAWLS, WILSON. *Where the Red Fern Grows*. Doubleday, 1961. 212p. \$3.95.

This dog story for lovers of hunting dogs is set in the Ozarks. Billy Coleman, way out in the sticks, worked and saved for two years to pay \$50 for two hound puppies. How he trained them, and the dramatic winning of prizes is a gripping story not easily put down once it is fairly started. For junior high reading, and older people who love dogs.

ROBINSON, WILLIAM POWELL. *Where the Panther Screams*. World Publications, 1961. 179p. \$2.95.

Familiar things are far behind as young Joe Hawkins gazes out over the Oklahoma land which is to become home for him and his parents. Excitement mounts when rattlesnakes, wolves, blizzards and bandits fail to daunt the Hawkins family as they fight courageously and together to earn their homestead. This book will interest students who like to read of pioneer life.

ROWLAND, JOHN. *The Polio Man*. Roy, 1961, 128p. \$3.25.

A biographical story of Dr. Jonas Salk. Beginning with his student days at City College New York the story reveals the important moments in the personal and professional life of this dedicated young scientist. All of the excitement and satisfaction of the scientific investigations leading to his sensational discovery of the polio vaccine are shared with the reader. This

book should be of general as well as vocational interest.

RIWKIN, ANNA, AND LINDGREN, ASTRID. *Lilibet, Circus Child*. Macmillan, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

Lilibet's family is a circus family, and she plans to be a performer when she grows up. How she spends her time now, and what she likes to do are shown here in vivid real life photographs. All children, loving the circus as they do, will enjoy examining this book.

RUBICAM, HARRY. *Men at Work in the Great Plain States*. Putnam, 1961. 123p. \$3.00.

This is an excellent addition to the Men at Work Series which are highly recommended for supplementary work in intermediate social studies. The book is illustrated with photographs.

RUMSEY, MARIAN. *Seal of Frog Island*. Morrow, 1961. 48p. \$2.50.

Seven-year-old John and his family live in a lighthouse; then a motherless seal adopts them, bringing new experiences and fun for all. The book is beautifully made up, illustrated with black and white drawings, and carrying a distinct atmosphere of the isolated sea home. The vocabulary will offer a challenge to second grade readers for whom it was written. It is recommended.

SANDBERG, HAROLD WILLIAM. *Pinky the Unhappy Crane*. Denison, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

Pinky was unhappy because all of his family was white and clean looking and he was colored. But when he was old enough to travel he found others as pink as he was, so he learned to be happy. Well illustrated and written in large clear type, the story will be popular with the second and third grade readers.

SANDBERG, HAROLD WILLIAM. *Pudgy, the Porpoise*. Denison, 1960. unp. \$2.75.

Another title coming in a series dealing with fiction about animals and insects, aimed to give general information to primary readers through a brief story. A well bound,

vividly illustrated book which will interest beginning readers. It should prove very popular at this time.

SAVORY, PHYLLIS. *Zulu Fireside Tales*. Hastings House, 1961. 64p. \$2.95.

The collection of 12 folktales is beautifully illustrated in black and white drawings in the primitive spirit of the land. All the mystery, magic, animals that can talk, even the presence of cannibals as the villains, are to be found in abundance here. The writing is not aimed especially for elementary readers, but any person interested in this field will enjoy the tales.

SCARBOROUGH, ALMA MAY. *I Help Too*. Broadman, 1961. unp. \$1.00.

A very helpful little girl tells other little girls about 3 to 6 years old how she helps mother, daddy and little brothers. She lives in a home where they have no dish-washing machine.

SCARRY, RICHARD. *Tinker and Tanker and Their Space Ship*. Doubleday, 1961. unp. \$1.50.

Tinker the rabbit, and Tanker the hippopotamus ran a repair shop. Then they decided to make a space ship and go to the moon. The mess they made was pretty thorough, but they did get a balloon. The pictures are about half in color, and children 3 to 5 will surely want to color the others.

SCARRY, RICHARD. *Tinker and Tanker Out West*. Doubleday, 1961. unp. \$1.50.

This is another of the whimsical Tinker and Tanker stories. This time the rabbit and the hippopotamus rescue the fair maiden from the badmen, and turn the prisoners over to the army. Grand illustrations and story for children about 3 to 6 are contained in this book.

SEE, INGRAM. *The Jungle Secret*. Doubleday, 1961. 141p. \$2.50.

This tale, set on a rubber plantation in Brazil, deals with George Robert's attempts to find the persons who are trying to cheat his father out of the family investment. The writing is not as good as you would

wish and there is too much violence throughout for it to be recommended for elementary readers.

SHERBOURNE, ZOA. *Ballerina on Skates*. Morrow, 1961. 187p. \$2.95.

Seventeen-year-old Karen had always loved to skate, and now that she was out of school she was seriously looking for work. Her childhood had been marked by tragedy and change, and she was alone in her effort to make a place for herself. This job was with a show, and she realized that she was not a typical show girl—she was big, not fat but just big. How she met her problem and made ■ success will interest upper elementary and junior high girls.

SHIRREFFS, GORDON DONALD. *Rebel Trumpet*. Westminster, 1961. 171p. \$2.95.

Unusual story of the Civil War in the Southwest depicting not only the actual military happenings, but also the terrible conflict of men engaged in selling out every loyalty for the sake of personal gain. Young readers will enjoy the thrilling account of how 15-year-old Steven Ames, a yankee drummer, kept his promise to Davey Curtis, dying rebel trumpeter, to use the beautiful silver trumpet which Davey gave him to help each other and not against the rebels.

SHOWERS, PAUL. *Find Out by Touching*. Crowell, 1961. unpag. \$1.95.

Excellent presentation of experiences designed to help Kindergarten through third grade children find out about the range of information gathered through the sense of touch. Worthy of special note are the illustrations which convey a meaningful story to the non-verbal reader.

SMITH, GARRY AND SMITH, VESTA. *Creepy Caterpillar*. Steck, 1961. 39p. \$1.75.

Creepy was a very lonely caterpillar. Finally he made himself into a cocoon, and when he woke up in the spring he was a very lovely butterfly. Pictures and story are for Nursery and Kindergarten children, and will interest them in caterpillars, cocoons, and butterflies.

SMITH, THERESA KALAB. *Dilly Dally*. Steck, 1961. 48p. \$1.75.

A beginning to read book with a very attractive format. Colorful pictures on each page; text in large clear type with well chosen vocabulary makes this a good book. Another brief reading experience for the age group that needs varied adventures.

SNELLING, LOIS. *Secret of the Red Gourd*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 275p. \$2.95.

The search for the red gourd haunted by an evil spirit takes Kent, an aspiring young newspaper reporter into many risky and terrifying circumstances finally leading him into an Indian burying ground at midnight. This exciting and well written mystery weaves such an air of suspense that the Junior High reader will not want to put it down until he has read the last page.

SIMON, SHIRLEY. *Molly and the Rooftop Mystery*. Lothrop, 1961. 190p. \$3.00.

This is a story of sixth and seventh grade girls, of their activities and ambitions in school. The drama club and the school paper are the basis of much of the story, complicated by boys who are interested in photography and animals. With the element of mystery this is a beguiling story of children, showing the complexity of lives many adults assume to be simple.

SIMON, TONY. *North Pole*. Doubleday, 1961. 143p. \$2.50.

An exciting adventure story written beautifully and clearly. It presents a vivid picture of the Arctic region—Eskimos, dog teams, shrieking wild wind, endless snow plateaus and a brave explorer, Mr. Robert Peary. He was a good husband and father and Mrs. Peary a typical wife. They will be admired by the youngsters who read this thrilling account of a dream come true.

STAMBLER, IRWIN. *Space Ship*. Putnam, 1961. 48p. \$2.50.

Readable well-illustrated book about the structure, functioning, and scientific exploits of the X-15 rocket plane. Recommended for the contemporary science shelf in the junior high school.

STANLEY, WENDELL; VALENS, EVANS. *Viruses and the Nature of Life*. Dutton, 1961. 224p. \$4.05.

Superb introduction to virology concepts adopted from an educational television of the subject by outstanding specialists. Designed for young people and interested adults with a general knowledge of science. Well illustrated by electron-micrographs and line drawings. To read this book is to come in contact with a Nobel Prize winner (1956) and his associates who work on the forefront of knowledge. It is amazing how the text material develops simple ideas in depth.

STEINER, CHARLOTTE. *Timmy Needs a Thinking Cap*. Macmillan, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

Timmy gets the prize from boxes of cereal. No children I know ever have. With a realistic ending the story would be sadistic. As it is, it is whipped cream in the sky. The illustrations are wonderful.

STEVENS, CARLA. *Catch a Cricket*. Scott, 1961. 95p. \$3.00.

This is a book to encourage young children (about 3 or 4 to 6 or 7) to catch and observe common insects and worms. The specific ones included are earthworms, fireflies, crickets, grasshoppers, and caterpillars. Children are told what to look for, and how to keep them for observation. The illustrations are photographs; quite wonderful ones.

STOUTENBERG, ADRIEN. *The Blue-Eyed Convertible*. Westminster, 1961. 157p. \$2.95.

The Blue-Eyed Convertible is the absorbing story of two high school graduates and their difficulties in earning college tuition. Their wholesome approach to their business difficulties, faithless glamour girls and family problems will interest young people. Good writing style and excellent characterization make this a thoroughly readable book.

STUART, JESSE. *Andy Finds a Way*. McGraw Hill, 1961. 92p. \$2.25.

The hills and hollows of Northeastern Kentucky are the background for this pre-eminent story teller of the region. Andy wants a pet, and the calf that seemingly must be sold is the available one. The way Andy finds leads through a hard decision to tell the truth. This book is for children 7 to 12.

SUMMERS, JAMES. *Gift Horse*. Westminster, 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

Alan Whitlock, fifteen, wants a car, but finds himself owner of My Buddy, a gift horse, instead. Aunt Ava, the giver, thinks cars ruin grade averages. Alan is confronted with supporting his pet, preparing for a horse show, keeping the admiration of Becky, and fitting into a real American family—his own.

This hilarious story is full of living and "horse-sense" told in teen-age language.

SUTTON, ANN AND MYRON. *Steller of the North*. Rand-McNally, 1961. 231p. \$3.50.

A true biography of George Wilhelm Steller, as a boy, student, and man who became Alaska's first pioneer naturalists. His search took him over thousands of miles of Siberian wilderness. His journals are priceless today, giving a first hand account of Bering's last voyage, one of the most historic of all time, and the realization of his own life long dream to reach America from Siberia, by way of Alaska.

SYKES, JO. *Chip on His Shoulders*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 186p. \$2.95.

That a potential criminal can be converted by patient kindness and understanding is proven in Hamilton Roark's case. Being the suspicious, hostile, "out-wit the cop" type, it takes many hard knocks, failures, then a real tragedy to soften his animosities. He adjusts and faces life with a chastened attitude. Many character building lessons here for the teen-age boys.

TAYLOR, DUNCAN. *Ancient Rome*. Roy, 1961. 80p. \$3.25.

Written in a lively and readable style and provided with attractive line drawings, maps, a helpful bibliography, and a list of important dates, this should prove to be a helpful work for boys and girls of the secondary school.

THOMAS, LOWELL JACKSON. *The Dalai Lama*. Duell, 1961. 151p. \$3.50.

The delightful biography of the exiled spiritual and temporal leader of Tibet is a well-timed arrival. Most of the informal narrative was gleaned from the God-King and his immediate family by Lowell Thomas, Jr., while a guest in their palace. If the work lacks depth it does not want for crispness and straightforwardness.

TOOR, FRANCES. *The Golden Carnation and Other Stories Told in Italy*. Lothrop, 1961. 189p. \$3.50.

This is a delightful selection of folk tales and mythological legends. Curses and evil spells abound but animals accomplish many miraculous feats, and love becomes a magical potent. The tales are a rare combination of fantasy and common sense in which the Italians are unsurpassed.

The book is recommended for junior and senior high students who enjoy folklore tales.

TREECE, HENRY. *Viking's Sunset*. Criterion, 1961. 182p. \$3.50.

This is the last of a trilogy about Harold Sigurdson, following *VIKING'S DAWN* and *THE ROAD TO MIKLAGARD*. As in the other books of the trilogy, the characteristics and action are authentic. This, the last book, must needs tell of the death of the hero, and is therefore tragic. The tale deals with the voyages of the Vikings to Iceland in the Western Hemisphere. The book is for ages 11 to 14.

TRENT, ROBBIE. *Jesus' First Trip*. Broadman, 1961. unpag. \$1.00.

This well known author gives us here a book of pictures with a line or two of text which carries the brief story in words the very young can understand. The page illustrations are dignified and beautiful. Recommended wherever brief religious material is needed.

TUNG, S. T. *Ah Bow and the Water Buffalo*. Dial, 1961. 124p. \$2.50.

Rich background study of a Chinese boy who helped his family convert their thinking to a more progressing way of living. It all came about through his love for an animal he cared for—a water-buffalo. Determined to buy the animal when he heard that it was to be killed, the boy made every effort to raise the money. It took much planning and much work, but he won out in the end.

TURNGREN, ANNETTE. *Mystery Clouds the Canyon*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 183p. \$2.95.

An exciting story which will delight and hold the teen-age reader in suspense from the first page to the unexpected ending.

Cindy proves that she is more "grown-up" than her brother, Tim, gives her credit when she helps to unravel the keys to a baffling deception at Spirit Lodge, a run-down mountain resort. Excellent for use with young people to show the value of accepting responsibility, just being one's self, and the importance of understanding others in order to know their real characters.

UNDERHILL, RUTH MURRAY. *Antelope Singer*. Coward McCann, 1961. 280p. \$3.50.

Young Tad Hunt wanted so much to have a friend. He finally found one in Nummer, a crippled Paiute Indian boy. Tad's family was forced to spend the winter with the Paiute Indians, when the wagon train left them and his father became ill.

The story showed how people of two different cultures became friends and learned to understand each other's way of life.

WALDEN, AMELIA ELIZABETH. *Shadow on Devil's Peak*. Westminster, 1961. 207p. \$2.95.

The story of Trudi Bancroft, 21, a magazine reporter, whose week ends are spent at a New England ski resort; a romance and mystery involving the U. S. Army are the overt happenings while Trudi battles with a sense of inferiority and fear of competitive skiing. All girls will enjoy this suspenseful tale.

WARNER, SUNNY B. *Tobias and His Big Red Satchel*. Knopf, 1961. unpag. \$3.00.

Any boy with a pocket full of useful articles his mother does not appreciate will be delighted with Tobias. Tobias has some wonderful explanations why he needs everything in his big red satchel. The illustrations help. The book is for children about 3 or 4 to 6 or 7.

WEISS, HENRY. *Horse In No Hurry*. Putnam, 1961. 71p. \$2.68.

When Jessica gets ambitious about her dog Morton and challenges Paul, aided and abetted by John-Thomas to race his horse Herman to town and back, some very peculiar things happen. Herman takes naps in strange places and snores. Morton chases cats, and so it goes. Delightfully outlandish for children 8 to 12.

WERSTEIN, IRVING. *The Battle of Midway*. Crowell, 1961. 145p. \$2.75.

A straightforward report giving the Japanese and American viewpoint of the tense days of the battle which was the turning point in the Pacific during World War II. Depicts the costliness of grave errors made in war and heights of courage men can achieve. Boys will like to read about the frightening thrill and futility of one battle and all war. Illustrated with maps.

WESTON, GEORGE AND MILDRED. *Key to Boston*. Lippincott, 1961. 128p. \$2.95.

The story of historic Boston from pioneer days to the present is exciting and illuminating. Readers will have an immediate desire to follow The Freedom Trail through this city where so many symbols of liberty now stand. Written for ages 9-12, but appealing to any age. One of the Keys to the Cities Series.

WIBBERLEY, LEONARD. *Sea Captain from Salem*. Farrar, Strauss, 1961. 186p. \$2.95.

This book follows *John Treegate's Musket* and *Peter Treegate's War* in the "Treegate Series" about the American Revolution.

WILKIE, KATHARINE ELLIOT. *The Man Who Wouldn't Give Up*. Messner, 192p. \$2.95.

Contains a portion of the story of Henry Clay who rose from ■ copiest to become one of the most influential political giants of his day. Lacking in appeal in places but would be of interest to young adults who enjoy biographies.

WISE, WILLIAM. *The House with the Red Roof*. Putnam, 1961. 47p. \$2.19. See and Read Storybook series.

Jimmy's house had a red roof, and lots of other things that Jimmy liked. Then the family had to move far away to another town. Jimmy was sure he would never like his new home. What made him change his mind is a surprise. A picture story book for reading in the latter part of the 1st grade or in the second grade.

WITHERIDGE, ELIZABETH P. *Jim*

Penney's Golden Nuggett. Abingdon, 1961. 158p. \$3.00.

Even a ten-year-old boy can get the fever for hunting for gold, and Jim Penny was determined to get out West somehow. The family was not going, however, and Jim had no encouragement in his plan. Even the unexpected gift of a real nugget did not keep him from working to get money for the trip. Middle elementary readers who like pioneer life will enjoy sharing the winter with Jim, and may be surprised at the turn the story takes.

WOLFF, JANET. *Let's Imagine Being Places*. Dutton, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

Aiming to give the very young child room for growth in imagination, this picture book presents a unique arrangement both in illustration and reading experience. Children having reading difficulty in associating words with thought, will be happy to find such a delightful outlet in reading. The book is highly recommended.

WORCESTER, DONALD EMMET. *War Pony*. Walck, 1961. 125p. \$3.00.

Gavilan was a buckskin pony, born on a ranch in New Mexico. The story of how his young master trained him as ■ cowboy's pony, how he was commandeered by the army, captured by the Indians and passed from tribe to tribe, makes a thrilling biography. Oh yes, he finally found his way home. Just right for intermediate grade children who love horses.

WYNDHAM, LEE. *Beth Hilton: Model*. Messner, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

A lively story for young girls who are considering a career in the modeling field. Portrays the struggles and competition a girl must endure to be ■ full-fledged model. Only hard work and dedication to the job pay off for Beth Hilton, model and photographer sweetheart, Amos Burr.

WYNDHAM, LEE. *Bonnie*. Doubleday, 1961. 142p. \$2.50.

Upper elementary girls will enjoy facing the problems with Bonnie, as she finds herself going to a new school in a new town, feeling timid and very insecure. How she overcomes her shyness and makes a place for herself is well shown in circum-

stances familiar to this age group. The book is recommended.

YOUNG, BOB AND JAN. *One Small Voice*. Messner, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

After seventeen-year-old Gina discovers that music by itself will not take the place of friends and fun, she becomes thoroughly involved in an approaching city election. Not only does she help awaken her community to the importance of voting, but also she discovers romance. The book is recommended.

ZEMACH, HARVE. *A Hat with a Rose*. Dutton, 1961. unp. \$1.95.

Mother picked out the hat, which is no proof that the little girl likes it. But what can she do. Especially when the hat is cleaned, mended and finally replaced after all plausible accidents. Little girls whose mothers pick out all their clothes will appreciate the stories, and mothers who read it to children 4 to 8 may learn something.

Education and Psychology

BAMMAN, HENRY AND OTHERS. *Reading Instruction in the Secondary School*. Longmans, 1961. 266p. \$4.25.

The stated purpose, to provide junior and senior high teachers with a professional book on teaching reading, is accomplished. It would be valuable in aiding secondary teachers and teacher trainees to acquire the understandings necessary for teaching basic work attack skills and methods of comprehending different types of subject matter.

BENSON, CHARLES SCOTT. *The Economics of Public Education*. Houghton, Mifflin, 1961. 580p. \$7.00.

This is an excellent book that should be read by all students of school finance and by all prospective superintendents of schools. This book represents a fresh approach, in placing the general subject of educational finance in the discipline of economics. This approach is sound and brings into consideration some material not previously presented in educational finance textbooks. Except for the new frame of reference, the book consists of a restatement of the writings in the field of school finance in this century with emphasis given to developments in the past decade.

BRADEN, WALDO. *Speech Methods and Resources*. Harper, 1961. 568p. \$6.50.

This comprehensive survey of the entire field of speech education is unique in that each chapter is written by a specialist in that particular area. All the contributors are members of the Louisiana State University faculty who combine practical experience with theoretical insight to provide a practical, useful text.

COSTELLO, LAWRENCE AND GORDON. *Teach with Television*. Hastings House, 1961. 192p. \$5.50.

A highly useful volume designed to answer the questions how, when, and where to use instructional television. Schools planning to offer course instruction by television will find it worth recommending to their teachers and technicians who are involved in the program.

CROW, LESTER; RITCHIE, HARRY.; CROW, ALICE. *Education in the Secondary School*. American Book Co., 1961. 414p. \$5.90.

This book gives brief attention to major aspects of American secondary education. Complete with end-of-chapter questions and references, this text is suitable for introductory courses in secondary education.

DARROW, HELEN; ALLEN, VAN. *Independent Activities for Creative Learning*. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961. 110p. \$1.25. Practical Suggestions for teaching No. 21.

DEHAAN, ROBERT FRANK; HAVIGHURST, R. J. *Educating Gifted Children*. University of Chicago Press, 1961. 362p. \$5.00.

This is a welcome revision of the 1957 volume. The text has been outstandingly rewritten, with a new chapter added. It is one of the best, if not the best, of the titles currently published on the topic for educating gifted children.

DEWEY, JOHN. *Democracy and Education*. Macmillan, 1961. 378p. \$2.45.

A reprint of probably Dewey's best known book, which has been regarded as an edu-

cational classic since its original publication in 1916. A paper back edition.

HANSFORD, BRYON WISEMAN. *Guidebook for School Principals*. Ronald, 1961. 296p. \$5.00.

This volume might even better have been entitled Handbook for School Principals. It is a decidedly practical guide which includes topics ranging from relations with the superintendent and board to the daily problems of maintenance. The bibliographies at the end of each section should prove to be most helpful.

KANDEL, ISSAC LEON. *William Chandler Bagley*. Columbia U. Press, 1961. 131p. \$3.50.

A sympathetic and penetrating study of a major figure in American education. The author was for many years Bagley's colleague at Teachers College, Columbia University, and writes with clarity, understanding, and scholarship. This book should be widely read at the present time, since Bagley's educational thought is admirable suited to present needs.

KEPHART, NEWELL C. *The Slow Learner in the Classroom*. Prentice-Hall, 1961. 292p. \$4.95.

The title of this book is a misnomer. It should have been entitled Readiness Activities for Pre-school Children. Emphasized are training activities for developing the perceptual, including sensory motor, processes.

KITZHAVER, ALBERT RAYMOND, AND OTHERS. *Education for College*. Ronald, 1961. 195p. \$3.50.

Based on the Portland (Oregon) High School Curriculum Study, this book reflects the judgments of the nearly fifty professors of liberal arts and science who serve as consultants in the Study. Seven of the eleven chapters deal with the consultants' recommendations as to scope and sequence within the major fields.

MARTIN, CHARLES. *Letters from a Headmaster's Study*. Oxford, 1961. 126p. \$3.00.

A collection of letters written by the Canon of Washington Cathedral—to the parents of adolescents at his school touch-

ing upon the common worries—parties, driving, drink, sex, and like elements. Aimed, perhaps, not so much at solutions as at creating a climate in which adjustments may be made. They should give some parents some comfort.

PATON, ALAN. *Tales From a Troubled Land*. Scribners, 1961. 128p. \$3.50.

The ten brief stories in this book probe the mysteries of the human spirit as it responds to internal conflicts and external pressures. They are written with remarkable understanding by an author whose humane views are widely and justly admired. South African people and problems here become intensely meaningful.

PHENIX, PHILIP HENRY. *Philosophies of Education*. Wiley, 1961. 137p. \$1.90.

A highly useful volume, issued in paperback, covering statements of contemporary educational philosophy from thirteen persons each of whom is prominent in the education world. This volume is the result of a series of educational television programs produced by KTCA-TV (Minneapolis-St. Paul).

WILSON, ROBERT E. *How to Guide Your Child's Education*. Harper, 1961. 129p. \$3.50.

Theories, practices and daily operations of the schools are treated through a question and answer guidebook aimed at educational problems foremost in the public mind today. Major viewpoints on issues also serve as guidelines to parents in this concised volume.

Health and Physical Education

DURANT, JOHN. *Highlights of the Olympics*. Hastings House, 1961. 160p. \$3.95.

This book presents in a very interesting style a historic review of the Olympics from ancient to present times including the 1960 Olympics. It is authentic in every way and very well written. Olympic records from early times to the present make a valuable addition to the sports library.

EVANOFF, VLAD. *Complete Guide to Fishing*. Crowell, 1961. 208p. \$3.75.

This book gives a very good coverage of techniques and knowledge of fishing. It is well done and presents information simply and interestingly. Many illustrations are timely used and the book should be valuable to the outdoor sportsman.

FLEMING, MARY; BENSON, MARION. *Home Nursing Handbook*. Heath, 1961. 264p. \$3.96.

This book is designed for junior or senior high school students. It is well written, format is attractive, interesting drawings and pictures, with many suggestions for learning experiences. It is scientifically accurate and is adequate. It is one of the best such texts that this reviewer has seen.

HALSEY, ELIZABETH. *Women in Physical Education*. Putnam, 1961. 249p. \$4.50.

This book is written as a challenge to women in physical education. On the background of the lives of a dozen women pioneers in physical education the reader or future leader is oriented to the woman's view point in the field. This book integrates in a most unusual way the various life roles of the women in physical education.

HOEHLING, A. A. *Great Epidemic*. Little, Brown, 1961. 217p. \$3.95.

A dramatically written story of the epidemic of Influenza—the plague of 1918. The book was written for youth and people of all ages.

LUDOVICI, L. J. *Great Moments in Medicine*. Roy, 1961. 122p. \$2.50.

The writer presents in an interesting and compact way contributions to medicine made by some of the pioneers. This is one of a series of books called Great Moments.

RIEHL, CARMELLA LUISE. *Family Nursing and Child Care*. Bennett, 1961. 384p. \$4.80.

This book is written for students in secondary schools—apparently a textbook on Home Nursing. It is interesting and well illustrated. Some parts seem to be too technical for the age group—more for the student in a school of nursing. One picture

showing use of an applicator might be questioned, especially when the book is intended for young students. There are many fine things in the book, too.

List

BOTEL, MORTON; AND OTHERS. *Books in the Schools*. American Book Publishers, 1961. 65p. \$1.00.

LANGENSCHELDT'S POCKET GERMAN DICTIONARY. Barnes & Noble, 1961. \$3.75.

National Society for the Study of Education—Sixtieth Yearbook Part I: Development in and through Reading. \$5.00. Part 2: Social Forces Influencing American Education. \$4.50. 1961.

Literature

AUDUBON, JOHN JAMES. *Audubon and His Journals, Vol. I & II*. Dover, 1961. 532 and 534 pp. \$2.00 each.

A marvelously vivid introduction to Audubon is provided in these paperback reprints of the original 1897 edition.

BURLINGAME, ROGER. *Don't Let Them Scare You*. Lippincott, 1961. 352p. \$5.95.

A biography of the imminent newsman and newscaster, Elmer Davis. The writing is friendly but balanced and always interesting. A useful study of recent history.

COLERIDGE, SAMUEL TAYLOR. *Shakespearean Criticism*. 2 vols. Dutton, 1961. 226 and 280pp. \$1.95 each.

These volumes constitute the second slightly shortened edition of the Everyman Collection published 30 years ago. They are basic references for either Shakespeare or Coleridge scholars.

CUNNINGHAM, W. SCHOTT. *Wake Island Command*. Little, Brown, 1961. 300p. \$4.95.

The story of the surrender of Wake Island in December, 1941, as told by the officer in command. The account, written in the first person with the assistance of Lydel Sims, is moving and interesting.

EBY, CECIL D., JR. *Porte Crayon*. University of North Carolina Press, 1961. 258p. \$5.00.

This is a good biography, and also one that is long overdue. Few Southern, or American, writers and illustrators were better known during their lifetime than was David Hunter Strother, yet for half a century he has remained neglected and almost forgotten. The present work is welcome by students of American history and American literature.

HOFFMAN, DANIEL. *Form and Fable in American Fiction*. Oxford University, 1961. 368p. \$7.00.

Although somewhat abstruse, and occasionally obtuse, this study is stimulating. It concentrates on Hawthorne, Melville, and Mark Twain, but it touches on many aspects of our culture and traditions as they are reflected or rejected in the work of these three. The central concern is with the place of folk motifs in our literature.

LITZ, A. WALTON. *The Art of James Joyce*. Oxford University, 1961. 152p. \$5.00.

This clearly written account of "method and design in *Ulysses* and *Finnegan's Wake*" is all the more helpful and gratifying because it is unpretentious. Though based on a detailed study of manuscript revisions, it is also judicious in the use of the material; the reader is enlightened rather than burdened.

NORBU, THUBTEN JIGME. *Tibet Is My Country*. Dutton, 1961. 264p. \$5.00.

Translated from the German, this is an autobiography of the eldest brother of the present Dalai Lama as told to Heinrich Harrer. It is absorbing as an account of places, people, and customs. The book is illustrated with beautifully colored photographs.

REYNOLDS, EARLE LANDRY. *The Forbidden Voyage*. McKay, 1961. 281p. \$4.95.

This is the story of the forbidden voyage of the ketch, *Phoenix*, in the summer of 1958. It was a voyage with a mission—to protest the continuation of atomic bomb

testings. The account is one with both moral and political significance.

STRONGE, ROBERT. *Eoneguski, or the Cherokee Chief*. McNally of Charlotte, 1961. 196p. \$4.95.

This facsimile republication of a North Carolina novel of 1839 has great historical interest, and perhaps somewhat more. The romantic tale gives an account of many Cherokee customs, legends, and traditions. The story ends in the tragic "Trail of Tears." An informative foreword is provided by Professor Richard Walser.

TILLOTSON, KATHLEEN MARY. *Novels of the Eighteen-Forties*. Oxford University. 1961. 328p. \$2.25. Oxford Paper backs, No. 15.

Half of this book surveys novel-writing in England from 1840 to 1850; the other half studies four novels; *Dombey and Son*, *Mary Barton*, *Vanity Fair*, and *Jane Eyre*. Since first publication in 1954, the volume has been widely read and as widely admired.

TRAIN, ARTHUR. *Mr. Tutt at His Best*. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1961. 357p. \$4.50.

This is a collection of sixteen selected stories about Mr. Tutt, the lovable elderly lawyer who had the knack of confounding those who were using the law to oppress the innocent. The stories were originally published from about 1920 to 1941, most of them in the *Saturday Evening Post*, delighting the readers of those years, as they will the readers of 1961.

TURNER, ARLIN. *Nathaniel Hawthorne*. Barnes & Noble, 1961. 149p. \$1.00.

There is nothing new in this "introduction" to Hawthorne, but the student or the general reader will find it both an interesting and helpful guide. The author writes of his subject out of an intimate acquaintance with it.

WALSER, RICHARD. *Thomas Wolf*. Barnes & Noble, 1961. 152p. \$1.00.

This lucid, unpretentious paperback described in the subtitle as "an introduction and interpretation," deserves to be valued for doing well what it was planned to do.

It is not for the specialist (though he may find it useful). It presents Wolfe and his major work in such a way as to assure a considerable degree of understanding and appreciation by the ordinary student.

WEDGWOOD, C. V. *Seventeenth Century English Literature*. Oxford University Press, 1961. 186p. \$1.25.

In a paperbacked reprint, a standard text that boldly simplifies a complex subject is now readily available. The brevity of the survey is admirable if the treatment is taken to be a guide and not a final statement.

WRIGHT, AUSTIN, Ed. *Victorian Literature*. Oxford University Press, 1961. 371p. \$2.25.

The selection of the essays reprinted here is judicious. In general, the scholars represented are appreciative of the earlier writers. The discussions deal with many of the major figures in the Victorian world of literature, and they are shown to have something to say to us still.

Children's Music

BERG, RICHARD C., AND OTHERS. *Music for Young Americans Books 6 and 7*. American Book Company. 1961. 216 and 232pp. 2 vols.

Music

GARRETSON, ROBERT L. *Conducting Choral Music*. Allyn & Bacon, 1961. 246p. \$4.50.

Rather than a conducting text, this is a handbook for choral directors, treating conducting as such rather cursorily. In touching all phases of the choral program, it adds little to existing materials other than collecting into one source some information of practical value. The lists of composers and compositions in the appendices are neither inclusive nor selective.

Philosophy and Religion

HALLMAN, RALPH J. *Psychology of Literature*. Philosophical Library, 1961. 262p. \$4.75.

The thesis in this mass of speculation is that literary tragedy is, in its various aspects, an exploration of human "alienation," by which is meant something like "loss of identity." To unravel the intricately intertwined sense and non-sense is a major task for the reader. At some points it is a rewarding enterprise.

KIERKEGAARD, SOREN AABYO, *Diary*. Philosophical Library, 1960. 253p. \$4.75.

This book contains selections from the journals of the introspective philosopher now identified as a founder of modern religious existentialism. The translation from Danish is made in clear English, and notes by Peter P. Rhode are helpful. The entries throw light on the author's more formal writings.

New English Bible. Oxford, 1961. \$4.95.

The first part of a completely new translation of the Bible, "inspired by the urgent and common need felt among the churches for a Bible . . . enlivened by a clear and contemporary vocabulary," a joint enterprise of the Protestant churches of the British Isles, under the direction of C. H. Dodd. The product of thirteen years of scholarship, the work is marked by clarity, freshness, and beauty of expression, consummate care for accuracy, and attractiveness of format.

Reference

PARTRIDGE, ERIC. *Smaller Slang Dictionary*. Philosophical Library, 1961. 204p. \$6.00.

This is a drastic abridgement of *Partridge's Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English* which excludes terms judged to be obsolete by 1900, terms confined to "underworld" society, and terms of questionable propriety. It is mainly concerned with non-American slang. Its usefulness is undeviable, and is also undeviablely quite limited.

Science and Mathematics

BONDI, HERMANN, AND OTHERS. *Rival Theories of Cosmology*. Oxford University Press, 1961. 64p. \$2.25.

Three separate papers and a general discussion of modern theories of the structure of the universe by scholars from the universities of London and Cambridge. The volume includes a number of excellent illustrations.

FRANTZ, HARPER; MALM, LLOYD E. *Essentials of Chemistry in the Laboratory*. Freeman, 1961. 308p. \$3.30.

This is a new laboratory manual for college chemistry by the authors of earlier successful manuals. Forty-three experiments, with some qualitative analysis and some organic chemistry, and included, along with eight study assignments. The experiments have been designed so they can be used in a two-or three-hour period.

GAMOW, GEORGE. *The Atom and Its Nucleus*. Prentice-Hall, 1961. 153p. \$1.95.

Recommended introductory commentary on the subject for those who have some background in scientific concepts and vocabulary is the content of this book. It is well written and carefully illustrated.

INGLIS, STUART JOHN. *Planets, Stars and Galaxies*. Wiley, 1961. 474p. \$6.75.

An unusually well written introductory text for descriptive astronomy. References to current literature, questions for reflection, star charts, significant charts and diagrams, and a point of view which encourages the thinking student combine to make this book desirable as well for the secondary school science library.

MARTIN, LEALON E. *Conquest of Disease*. Coward McCann, 1961. 121p. \$2.95.

This small book written by an excellent authority is beautifully illustrated and presents some of the outstanding things that have happened in the history of medicine. He shows that disease is a threat to everyone, and much is being done to conquer it. We only hope that his "town of tomorrow—2010 A.D." will become a reality.

OPOTOWSKY, STAN. *TV The Big Picture*. Dutton, 1961. 318p. \$4.50.

An objective, hard-hitting account of a

burgeoning American industry. In a comprehensive manner, the writer deals with a broad range of TV subjects. The writing is enjoyable, entertaining and insightful.

STEHLL, GEORG. *The Microscope and How to Use It*. Sterling, 1961. 157p. \$3.95.

An unusually helpful self-teaching guide for the serious amateur microscopist. This book will provide many leads for the biology science project. A good balance between technique, illustration, and explanation has been maintained.

TREGASKIS, RICHARD. *X-15 Diary*. Dutton, 1961. 317p. \$4.95.

X-15, hypersonic manned rocket ship establishes the new speed record of 2,196 m. p. h. and the new altitude record of 136,500 feet. The engrossing stories that lie behind these flights are well presented. With its good illustrations and its thorough and up-to-date text, *X-15 Diary* is a valuable chronicle of U. S. achievements in space aviation.

TYNDALL, JOHN. *Faraday as a Discoverer*. Crowell, 1961. 213p. \$2.75.

This is a reprint of Tyndall's 1868 work on Faraday. It is helpful to students of the history of science in that it presents a contemporary account of Faraday's work.

Social Science

BIXBY, WILLIAM. *The Race to the Southpole*. Longmans, 1961. 215p. \$3.25.

This book is a worthy contribution to the literature on great explorations. The book is for all who feel a zest for adventurous travel.

BOAK, ARTHUR, AND OTHERS. *History of Our World*. Houghton, Mifflin, 1961. 794p. \$5.80.

COWELL, FRANK RICHARD. *Everyday Life in Ancient Rome*. Putnam, 1961. 207p. \$3.50.

This is an interesting and informative account of life in ancient Rome. The text is enlivened by numerous quotations from Roman authors and by many illustrations.

DUNCAN, ROBERT LIPSCOMB. *Reluctant General*. Dutton, 1961. 289p. \$5.00.

This account of the life and times of Albert Pike details the Battle of Pea Ridge which largely determined the situation during the War Between the States in Arkansas, Missouri and the Indian Territories. For his early life, personal relationships, and his work in and for the Free Masons, things hinted seem more interesting than what is included. This account seems well documented.

GRINNELL, GEORGE BIRD. *Pawnee, Blackfoot, and Cheyenne*. Scribners, 1961. 301p. \$4.95.

Introduced to the Plain Indians in 1870, the Editor of *Forest and Stream*, founder of the Audubon Society, and leader in the National Park Movement, has used his personal experiences with three tribes in writing down stories, pieces on tribal history, and folklore. His lifelong affinity with Indian lore is evident in this delightful collection.

KALB, MARVIN L. *Dragon in the Kremlin*. Dutton, 1961. 258p. \$4.50.

What are the ties that bind Russia and China? Marvin Kalb, a correspondent in Moscow, analyzes the powerful partnership in view of what the great alliance means in international diplomacy. The ideological differences are brilliantly presented, adding immeasurably to the value of the work. Chou En-lai and China's "Liberalism" focuses new light on Eastern leadership, explaining the widely recognized and increasing influence of Red China in the Communist World since Stalin's death. According to this work the Chinese menace makes Russia appear tame. The able analysis covers an alarming subject of which so little is known.

McNITT, VIRGIL V. *Chain of Error*. Heritage Printers, 1960. 134p. \$4.50.

A practical lesson to historians on how manuscripts can be used, abused, and neglected. The book shows, as in the case of the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence, the chain of errors which results from the falsification of a patriotic action. This work vindicates the integrity of the controversial North Carolina document.

MILLER, WRIGHT WATTS. *Russians As People*. Dutton, 1961. 205p. \$3.95.

This is an insightful analysis of contemporary Russian society. The writer deals with the Russians as individuals—their manners, tastes, and attitudes toward government. It is a very timely book.

SAVAGE, KATHARINE. *The Story of Africa South of the Sahara*. Walck, 1961. 184p. \$4.00.

This is an excellent resource book on the section of Africa which lies south of the Sahara. The clarity of expression facilitates understanding of the historical accounts which are so well written and authenticated. Readers will gain insight into the Africa of today from this presentation of information about the vast land and its people.

ST. JOHN, ROBERT. *Builder of Israel*. Doubleday, 1961. 185p. \$2.95.

The Hadassah award presented to Ben-Gurion in 1958 said in part: "Man of action and man of thought, his life has been dedicated to the survival of the Jews as a people, and the establishment of Israel as a state . . ." The story of how he earned this tribute through persistent effort and devotion is told with skill and depth of understanding in this biography for young people. This book is excellent in every respect.

UTECHIN, SERGE VALSEVICH. *Everyman's Concise Encyclopedia of Russia*. Dutton, 1961. 623p. \$7.95.

This is a highly valuable reference. It should be in every high school and college library.

WIBBERLEY, LEONARD. *Zebulon Pike*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 179p. \$2.95.

Explorer, negotiator of treaties with the Indians, discoverer of Pike's Peak, general in the War of 1812, Pike is often ignored by the teacher who is unfamiliar with his brave and many-sided services to our nation. Drawn from Pike's own journal, this story is presented without cooncaps or mythical exaggerations.

Text

ALLEN, JACK; STEGMEIR, CLARENCE. *Civics—Fifty State Edition*. American Book Company, 1961. 552p. \$5.12.

CHRIST, HENRY IRVING. *Heath Handbooks of English 7-11 and Complete Course*. Heath, 1961. \$2.84 each.

FRASER, DOROTHY AND WEST, EDITH. *ABC Social Studies in Secondary Schools*. Ronald, 1961. 476p. \$6.50.

A textbook in "methods" by two authors with rich and extensive experience in the social studies. The volume is elaborate and comprehensive in scope. The writing is personal, direct, and concrete. In addition, the book represents a worthwhile contributions to the literature of education.

JACOBSON, WILLARD J.; LAUBY, CECILIA J. *ABC Science Series—Books*

1-6. American Book Company. 1961.

MATHEWS, PAUL WENTWORTH. *You Can Teach Music*. Dutton, 1960. 196p. \$3.75.

A popular college text in its field, "You Can Teach Music" has gone through a revision which enhances the value of the book for present day use. The body of the text remains intact for the most part without substantial change. The revision consists largely of up-dating materials, records, films, illustrations, and other teaching aids together with the addition of a fine chapter on the uses of piano as a functional tool in the classroom written by Mary Jarman Nelson which appears as an appendix.

SCHNEIDER, HERMAN AND NINA. *Heath Science Series*. Heath, 1961. Book 1—\$2.44, Book 2—\$2.68, Book 3—\$2.92, Book 4—\$3.08, Book 5—\$3.16, Book 6—\$3.32, Book 7—\$3.44, Book 8, \$3.72.

PEABODY COLLEGE ALUMNI MEETINGS FALL, 1961

State	Officers	Date	Place	Function	Hour
ARKANSAS Little Rock	Dr. James E. Griner Chairman—College Hts. Mrs. Zola Staggs Vice-Chm.—Little Rock Marcus B. Kaufman Secretary—Clarendon	Friday November 3	Marion Hotel Continental Room	Breakfast	7:30 A.M.
LOUISIANA Shreveport	Dr. William R. Eglin Chairman—Baton Rouge Mrs. Walter R. Robinette Vice-Chm.—Lafayette Miss D. Vickers Secretary—Hammond	Monday November 20	Yourcee Hotel Dining Room "A"	Luncheon	12:30 P.M.
MISSOURI St. Louis	Raymond Karcher Chairman—Mehlville Miss Therese I. Janin Secretary—Normandy	Friday November 3	Miss Hulling's Cafeteria 1103 Locust St.	Breakfast	7:30 A.M.
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EAST TENNESSEE Knoxville	Mrs. W. Ross McGehee Chairman—Oak Ridge Alvin S. Peek Secretary—Knoxville	Friday October 27	Farragut Hotel Oak Room	Breakfast	7:30 A.M.
WEST TENNESSEE Memphis	Hawthorne Wallis Chairman—Memphis W. B. Hargett Vice-Chm.—Elbridge Mrs. Inez Dobbs Westerfield Secretary—Memphis	Friday October 13	Claridge Hotel Aztec Room	Breakfast	7:30 A.M.
TEXAS Houston	Dr. Clifford S. Blackburn Chairman—Denton Mrs. J. W. Agee Vice-Chm.—Corpus Christi Mrs. Frances Wade Goodson Secretary—Weslaco	Friday October 20	Rice Hotel Trinity Room	Breakfast	7:30 A.M.
VIRGINIA Richmond	Z. T. Kyle Chairman—Richmond Mrs. Joella Akin Bradley Vice-Chm.—Richmond Miss Louise Sutherland Secretary—Pearisburg	Thursday November 2	John Marshall Hotel George Wythe Room	Breakfast	7:30 A.M.
WEST VIRGINIA Huntington	Miss Dora May Mitchell Chairman—Huntington Clemitt O. Humphreys	Thursday October 26	Home of Miss Mitchell 1608 Sixth Ave.	Friendship Hour	4:15-5:15 P.M.

PEABODY *Journal* OF EDUCATION

DECEMBER • 1961

VOLUME 39

NUMBER 3

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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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NOVEMBER, 1961

NUMBER 3

Editorial—

Commencement at North Texas State University, Denton Summer 1961

Have you ever sat alone for three hours without reading, or taking an examination, or writing, or seeing a television show, or listening to the radio or a record, or deliberately thinking some problem through? To all outward appearances you have just been hibernating. I am not referring to sleep. Any fathead can take a nap. As the three-hour time ends, you find that your thoughts are clear. Some problem has been solved; some decision has been made; some action will now be taken or some action you had planned to take will not be taken because the error in so doing is now clear.

If you have had such an experience, you have had a glimpse of the fine art of meditating. No one should be unfamiliar with it and no college graduate can afford to stop short of developing it to the point of making it part and parcel of his personality.

It is essential to problem solving. It is a requisite to the creative mind. It is one of the characteristics of the scholar. It is practiced by everyone who seeks to deal justly. It is the perfect antidote to speed and noise and pressure and excessive ego.

It reminds us that when we quote the line "Let us then be up and doing" that we often recall only half the story. We have failed to remember that one must "Learn to labor and to wait." And it is in

the waiting that one meditates.

The next time you are alone, don't turn on the television set, don't join the crowd, don't read. Just meditate.

When the history of our era is written, three words will loom large in the story. They are: activity, and tension, and noise. We have neither time nor opportunity for quiet. We search for the kingdom of heaven in every quarter except where we are told on excellent authority that it happens to be—*within us*. We need to explore our motives, our plans, and our lives with the aid of the clear light which comes only when we are alone in some quiet place.

Stay at home and let your mind travel. Learn the ecstasy of deep, independent, free, unmolested thought. It is recreation in its highest form. It develops the other you without the danger of causing you to become schizophrenic. It is an ancient discovery which modern imaginations have neglected almost to the point of atrophy. And yet it is made to order for our day. Its function is not to escape today's problems, but to solve them; to have the inner strength with which to solve them; to have the self-assurance, confidence and faith to work and wait.

Man is a thinking animal. He is at his best when he is thinking. As college graduates you are called upon to represent man at his best. I recommend that in this modern day you answer the call to put aside some time and find some quiet place in which to be still and meditate.

J. C. MATTHEWS

Editor's Note—These statements by President Matthews form themselves into an excellent commencement address.

Public Relations in the College Business Office

E. BRUCE HEILMAN
Kentucky Southern College
Louisville

“Since all institutions of higher education, both publicly and privately controlled, must look to the community for funds, sound public relations are essential.”¹ If this were the only justification for public relations the college business office and its business officer would be considerably involved in the process. Along with this obvious fact of the need for public relations the extent of contact by the business office provides many publics and demands the most effective kind of communications if the college is to maintain a place of warm acceptance by its constituency.

Public relations with prospective donors may involve a realistic approach to the fundamental business aspect of management, for many of these donors are business people who have gained financial success through shrewd manipulation of money. It must not be forgotten that the college has a responsibility to the donor to protect his gift from loss and make it serve as many students as possible.

The business officer is involved in matters of public relations such as cashing checks; acceptance or rejection of the opportunity to listen to problems of students, parents, staff, faculty or the public; matters of student housing; handling loan funds; dealing with student workers; purchasing; alumni contacts; collecting money; paying the faculty and staff; providing information relative to staff benefits and many other ways.

It has often been stated that the quickest way to incite the ire of an individual is to create conflict concerning his money either in terms of his worth and its measure in dollars or in obligating him to expend funds which he already holds. The college business office is involved

¹ American Council on Education, *College and University Business Administration*. Volume 1. Washington: The Council, 1952.

with all of its publics in the touchy kinds of relationships which finance and business bring about. It is also involved in dealing with a variety which ranges from the most uneducated janitor at one moment to the most educated professor at the next and from an immature student to a well established trustee.

Although this is true there has been relatively little effort to define the publics of this office and for effecting processes of education directed toward the creation of understanding concerning the policies and procedures necessary to the fulfillment of these responsibilities.

Perhaps the problem lies outside of the business office as a result of restrictions being placed upon the business officer by the president. This may result from inadequate personnel, lack of concurrence, or ineffective communications. The business office is often regarded as the place where specifics are dealt with in a purely objective manner. Actually much can be done to make business offices personal, pleasant and not quite so cold-bloodedly objective.

Although much time, money and effort are spent in public relations elsewhere it could often be assumed that a little effort to plug a leak in public relations at this spot may be much cheaper than trying to offset ill will created.

Some years ago the writer made a study in anticipation of instituting a standard policy for making refunds to students who found it necessary to withdraw from college after having registered and paid their fees. In the process of study it was discovered that even here public relations is one of the major considerations. Although it was found necessary to establish basic policies which seemed to be consistent, fair and generally accepted by other institutions it was recognized that these policies had to be clear, well publicized and reasonable to the students and parents. The matter of communication through the catalogue and other media becomes extremely important to the implementation of the policy.

In all of its activities the college is obligated to provide the student and others with a statement of fact regarding the various phases of business policy. In a college situation as in other business activities the general attitude of the constituency may well indicate the strength or weakness of the policy concerning certain matters. If the majority of

students are dissatisfied with their treatment the policy is probably unfair, unreasonable or has not been properly communicated to the students.

Another process often leading to the intimidation of students and parents is that involving deferred payments and/or student loan funds. With the advent of the National Defense Loan Fund this takes on even greater significance. Currently many colleges are less than definite in their collection policies due to their desire to retain the goodwill of their publics. A large number never try to collect unpaid fees or loans through legal process. They fear such action may hurt their relationships with the public to an extent greater than the loss of funds. In certain aspects of business the matter of strict adherence to a stated policy is the best means for maintaining good public relations. For example to allow deferred payments to some students while denying this privilege to others would create very poor relationships with most of the group. Although many seem not to give it much attention most colleges realize the significance of considering the student's feelings and have set up policies which are fair and well stated in the catalogue; strict adherence to a liberal policy is widely accepted.

In dealing with students there should be one policy for all with some consideration for conforming to other colleges where transfers make this desirable. Each college should set up its own standards based upon sound practices which will protect the school both in avoiding financial disaster and in avoiding adverse feeling on the part of the clientele. The policy should be fair to all and should be administered fairly, allowing for adjustment for extreme circumstances but keeping such adjustments to a minimum.

No regulation will be conducive to good public relations if it is only implied or merely based upon precedent. It should be expressed in such a way and in such a place as to be conspicuous and outstanding. The student should be directed to read and understand regulations which affect him. If the policies are well known and understood the student will usually accept them as final.

In many cases the parent can arouse more adverse feeling toward the institution than can the student himself. It is not uncommon for the parent to appear as the arbitrator for the student in his dealings with

the business office. The decision to enter a particular college may well rest on the reaction of the parent to a first contact with the business office concerning the method of fee payment, cost of attendance, etc. and the way in which such information is provided. One parent who had misunderstood the financial policy of a college remarked upon leaving the business office "I have given my last good word for this college and no child of mine will ever be a student here." This, perhaps is rare, but much harm can be caused the college by a few such incidents. Most colleges recognize that a policy providing for a practical approach to problems in financial management is good and is worth the added cost if better public relations result.

Although it is usually assumed that in every institution of higher education the faculty and staff are dedicated to its main objective—teaching and research—it is not so clear that every member of the college group feels that he must be an effective interpreter of the institution's program and objectives. This is usually considered to be the exclusive concern of the president and the public relations director. Especially is it true that business office personnel fail to recognize that they are a part of a larger purpose in the institution. President David D. Henry of the University of Illinois recently urged that the entire university staff should aggressively and persistently engage in the business of interpreting the university to the people. Such results will not come from exhortations of the president or from the best of plans in public relations offices. They will come when every college, every department, and every unit of the university's life is organized to take part in this work as actively as it now engages in its other mainline functions. This fact can be recognized by the business officer to great advantage.

College business is no less involved in the labor-management situation than is any other operating enterprise in the community. Personnel management is in fact a big part of the responsibility of a business office. In an institution of higher learning satisfactory employer-employee relations depend upon a definite statement of personnel policy. This would suggest the need for an employee manual or a manual of institutional policies providing an outline of the administrative organization, faculty and staff organization, personnel policies,

tenure, promotion and salary changes, leaves of absence, retirement benefits, teaching loads, payroll procedures, faculty travel, business procedures, and the institutional organization chart. For the staff, information would be included relative to classification and compensation, hours of duty, holidays, annual leave, sick leave, education and training and other matters of frequent interest. All of this is but a part of the public relations responsibility of the college administration and especially the business office.

Much of the confusion that exists in a college or university business office results from the lack of a definite statement of business procedures. This is not good public relations for the college or the business office and wastes time and money. The business officer may be partly to blame but the president who allows his business officer to get by without such a document is more guilty than he.

A college business office serves the institution best when it is conscious of the presence of its various publics. It must deal with each in the particular manner which is demanded by its unique individuality.

The local people and business houses in the community often have their main contact with the institution through the business officer or his organization. If the business officer fails to recognize the need for good public relations, he may seriously injure the reputation and acceptance of the institution.

In many colleges the students shy away from contact with the business office because of the stigma of unpleasant associations in the past or the thought of being separated from money. A pleasant atmosphere rather than brusque authority can help to guarantee more enthusiasm on the part of future alumni.

The faculty may be an even more important public. It is well observed that the business officer has typed himself as one creating considerable unnecessary red tape. If the routine procedures are not clearly understood and generally accepted by the faculty the greatest efficiency cannot occur. Here the responsibility of the business manager involves much in educating the faculty.

The business officer should be sensitive to all areas of possible difficulty and recognize potential controversial issues. Much of this can

be overcome by adopting a sympathetic and wholesome attitude toward the publics concerned.

The primary means to good public relations in the business office is the communication and interpretation of these policies. Once publicized or communicated the policies must be put into practice. It is through the successful implementation of announced policies that the various publics gain confidence in an educational institution. The publics which are of major concern are (1) the general public (2) the constituency which give financial support to the institution (3) students (4) parents (5) faculty (6) alumni and (7) the various ones who sell goods to the college. It is important that the business officer observe closely the effect of the requests, desires and pressures of these groups. Alienation of any of these could result in a breakdown in relationships.

The business officer can make significant contributions to fund raising through his efforts in public relations. He renders service in this field by the performance of his usual duties with courtesy, kindness and consideration for those with whom he deals. Maintaining goodwill through all the trials and tribulations of the business office is difficult.

However, we must not forget that good public relations consist of following the best business practices. Decisions based upon expediency alone will usually result in deterioration of public relations. An honest and fair "no" with a smile is the best guarantee of good public relations when a request cannot be granted.

Although the following considerations may be important to any public relations program they are no less important to the business office and should be consciously observed at all times.

1. Telephone calls should be answered cheerfully, distinctly and informatively.

2. Correspondence should be given prompt, accurate, and personalized attention.

3. Employees should be given personal consideration and should be treated as individually important.

4. Visitors should be welcomed and accorded all due courtesies.

5. Cooperative and friendly attitudes should prevail on the part of business office personnel.

6. Wholehearted cooperation should be maintained with public officials, civic organizations, schools and churches.

7. The constituency of the school should be kept fully informed of policies and practices.

8. The office should present an air of dynamic purpose which indicates service and efficiency.

Yes, public relations is just a lot of little things like a friendly greeting, a note of appreciation, a telephone call that creates a good impression or an unpressured compliment to a fellow worker but it is without question the hidden secret to good administration business-wise or otherwise.

Professional Teamwork Contributes to Professional Education

WILLAVENE WOLF

Ohio State University

WILLIAM WOLF

Ohio State University

WHAT DO TEACHERS BRING INTO A SCHOOL SYSTEM

The nine newly contracted elementary school teachers in the Briarburg Public School System certainly possessed varied credentials. Five of the nine teachers recently obtained Bachelor's degrees in elementary education from colleges and universities in the Briarburg area. Two of the nine possessed liberal arts degrees supplemented by an additional summer of professional preparation. And two of the nine acquired some professional training, but they lacked a bachelor's degree. College coursework in elementary education completed by these individuals varied from a few foundation courses in one case to more than half the undergraduate program in another case.

Harry Ritter signed his Briarburg contract months before he graduated from the state university. He aspired to be an elementary school teacher in Briarburg long before he decided upon a specific training institution. State was his choice because he felt the undergraduate program provided both an extensive liberal education as well as an intensive professional preparation. On the other hand, the ink was still moist on Mary Moot's contract. Mary, like Harry, was a Briarburg resident. However, Mary selected the undergraduate program at a nearby teachers college because the four-year program enabled her to satisfy state certification requirements in both elementary and secondary education. She had considerable difficulty choosing between an elementary teaching job in her home town and a better paying junior high school teaching position in a nearby community. Miriam Nestor, also a Briarburg girl, preferred to pursue her undergraduate study at a nearby liberal arts college for women. She was barely able to meet the minimum state certification requirements for elementary teachers upon com-

pleting her college program. She signed her teaching contract immediately after graduation. Miriam, Mary, and Harry were life-long residents of Briarburg who planned to return to their home community as public school teachers. Four others among the novice teachers selected Briarburg because they wanted to leave their home communities. Two members of the group were present because they received their most attractive teaching assignments in Briarburg's system.

It is improbable that a better example of individual differences could be found than the nine newly contracted elementary school teachers. Their training, background experiences, and motivation represented a pinnacle of diversity. Imagine the confusion and misunderstanding that is apt to result if each of the nine novice teachers began teaching in the same building. Briarburg's school leaders not only recognized this possibility, but they also realized that such extreme diversity (while desirable in some respects) is not conducive to perpetuating the school plan of the system—a plan evolved by the system's professional staff. Therefore, the school leaders instituted an orientation program for new professional personnel one week prior to the time pupils return to the classroom. The program was designed to familiarize new teachers with the system's pedagogical plan, teaching materials, school plant facilities, and personnel.

CURRENT MANIFESTATIONS OF TEACHER ORIENTATION

Briarburg is like numerous school systems in the United States that provide a planned orientation program for beginning teachers. The purposes of existing programs vary considerably, as does the actual time allocated for orientation purposes. Generally, orientation programs are developed for one, several, or most of the following purposes:

1. To acquaint beginning teachers with the school system's organization and policies.
2. To introduce beginning teachers to the system's personnel.
3. To acquaint beginning teachers with the community environment.
4. To enable beginning teachers to view their specific classroom situation in terms of a school-wide and/or a system-wide perspective.

5. To enable beginning teachers to prepare an instructional program.
6. To expedite social adjustment within the system and community.

Orientation programs usually are conducted immediately prior to the time children return to the classroom after their summer vacation. These programs vary considerably in length. A cursory examination of a dozen school systems' programs reveals that a short orientation period is preferred. Half of the programs are conducted for three or fewer days, whereas only one is in session longer than one week. Usually, the meetings are held in the schools for a major portion of the program. The planned activity may include a tour of the community and the system's facilities as well. An interesting variation to this pattern can be observed in a Michigan system. This system conducts a two day orientation program at a summer resort at the taxpayer's expense.

During the orientation program the beginning teacher typically participates in many meetings and discussions. These sessions may involve all the beginning teachers, beginning teachers identified with certain areas of the school, beginning teachers assigned to specific buildings, and so forth. Time is often provided for personal or small group interviews with an experienced classroom teacher, a building principal, or an area supervisor. Some school systems provide novice teachers with a detailed handbook pertaining to school organization and policies. Obviously, the impact that an orientation program can have upon new teachers entering the system depends greatly upon the amount of pre-planning for the experience. The beginning teacher can anticipate a profitable orientation experience if competent individuals are delegated the responsibility for structuring a program, if these individuals possess data relating to previous orientation programs, and if these individuals can visualize clear purposes for an orientation program.

CURRENT MANIFESTATIONS OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Not only do the school leaders of Briarburg provide an orientation experience for new teachers, but they also provide in-service educational experiences designed to keep the school's staff professionally

alert. In addition to regularly scheduled building staff meetings, the system's professional personnel engage in periodic study committees which focus upon instructional materials, the curriculum, evaluation procedures and similar pertinent aspects of pedagogy. Occasionally a workshop in reading, mathematics, science, or another relevant area is conducted by the school system. Since the school leaders recognize the importance of these in-service training vehicles, classroom release time is provided so that teachers can actively participate in the committees and/or workshops. The nine newly-contracted teachers could anticipate stimulating in-service training experiences in the Briarburg system.

While innumerable school systems provide in-service training experiences similar to those described in the above paragraph, most systems are not nearly as liberal with classroom release time. If a single limitation of current in-service education practices could be pinpointed, that difficulty would probably be related to time. Whether the vehicle for in-service education is a faculty meeting, study committee, workshop, seminar, practicum, institute, or special course, more often than not it is conducted outside the regular classroom hours. Teachers have been conditioned to engage in these activities before school, after school, on week-ends, or at the close of the "regular" school year.

Fortunately, increasing numbers of school leaders recognize the fact that 7:45 A.M., 4:00 P.M., or 7:00 P.M. on school days and 9:00 A.M. on Saturday are not the most productive hours for tackling major pedagogical issues and problems. These leaders have been instrumental in acquiring classroom release time for in-service experiences. Probably releasing teachers from classroom responsibilities for an afternoon occasionally is the most prevalent in-service education practice presently (not counting a school staff meeting). Classroom visitation and exchange is also becoming increasingly popular throughout the country. It is not unreasonable to believe that the present trend toward classroom release time for purposes of in-service education will continue unabated.

In-service education is usually directed toward a specific topic, a specific group of people, or a specific school situation. The purpose for the training may stem from a local school need, from a national concern, or it may be of an exploratory nature. For example, an east-

ern community has advanced the frontiers of knowledge in the realm of team teaching appreciably as a result of extensive school and system-wide experimentation. On the west coast several communities are experimenting with a variety of classroom organizational patterns in selected schools to determine the impact of these arrangements upon learning. School systems from coast to coast, border to border, have undoubtedly directed attention to science and mathematics, television instruction, and programmed learning in recent years. These examples emphasize the fact that unless educators keep abreast of new developments in education, they are apt to be guilty of that cardinal professional sin—stagnation.

CLOSER COLLEGE-COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS CAN EXPEDITE THE MATURATION OF OUR PROFESSION

While Briarburg is a figment of the writers' imagination, the school setting is certainly reminiscent of many actual school systems in the United States. The fictional account of Briarburg's experiences in staffing schools, orienting beginning teachers, and providing for their in-service growth vividly focuses upon an example of college-community teamwork which has marked implications for professionalizing education. Graduates of teacher training programs are not apt to be highly skilled teachers. Rather, these graduates have been exposed to foundation experiences which enable them to enter the classroom confidently. Sensitive school leaders do not assume that the recent college graduate is a highly skilled teacher. Hence orientation programs are conducted to acquaint beginning teachers with the school system, and in-service training experiences are provided to enable the teacher to grow professionally. Professional maturity is the outcome of an individual's efforts to develop the foundation experiences of a college program through in-service education.

Interest in orientation and in-service training has increased by leaps and bounds since the end of the Second World War. Dozens of articles describing experimentation in these areas can easily be compiled from the professional journals since 1945. Experimentation of this sort has already resulted in many excellent orientation and in-service training programs. However, it is the writers' opinion that experimen-

tation thus far is merely a harbinger of what lies ahead.

Unfortunately, school systems are akin to children and teachers in their diverse nature. At the present time some school systems do not offer either planned orientation or in-service opportunities for their professional staff. Educational leaders in these school situations need to be sensitized to the implications of this oversight upon the staffs' professional growth. Smaller districts that experience difficulty in undertaking orientation and training programs may profitably cooperate with neighboring systems in such ventures. Many school systems are committed to orientation and in-service training programs only in a half-hearted manner. Systems in this category need to assess the impact of existing programs upon the professional staff. Additional expenditures of staff time for preparatory work or additional financial expenditures for consultant service may be necessary. Personnel in many school systems devote considerable time and energy to orientation and in-service training experiences for the professional staff. Their efforts are often instrumental in developing professionally mature members of the staff.

The writers can envision more intensive orientation programs than those currently conducted—programs structured to methodically and meaningfully convey to entering teachers the educational plan of the school district. These programs will require several weeks time prior to the return of the children so that prescribed aims can be accomplished. Also, in-service training will be more closely related to the professional staff's graduate study than is the case in most instances currently. Broad aspects of in-service training and graduate study will be synonymous for many staff members. The graduate classroom will extend well beyond the college environment, so that a program of study not only will contribute to an individual's professional growth but it will also have a direct bearing upon professional practices on a system-wide basis as well. Some present practices already reflect this conception of tomorrow's in-service education.

Improvement of Public School Building Programs

RICHARD SWERDLIN

The following is a ten point plan for improving public school building programs:

1. The usual fee for school architectural services is six per cent of the value of a project. This fee is too high. There is no valid reason why a school district should not be able to avail itself of such services offered by state employed school architects. Capable men could be recruited for this purpose without serious difficulty if good salaries were paid. In addition, the state should increase school construction research facilities. For example, Ohio could expand the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University, and assist in establishing similar facilities at a municipal institution such as the University of Cincinnati.

2. It is not unusual for a large school district to encompass several small political subdivisions. Since each subdivision normally adopts its own zoning and building codes, considerable time, effort, and money can be consumed in trying to cope with these variations in different parts of the district. Each state should adopt and enforce uniform rules in this respect in order to facilitate school construction and effect maximum savings in the process.

3. The school building program is supposed to provide the physical facilities required to carry out the educational objectives of a community. Simple logic dictates that those who are directly involved in the program should have a sound knowledge of the fundamentals and problems thereof. Teachers, principals, superintendents, and school board members should all be required to take a course in the subject periodically.

4. Customarily a contractor will remedy construction defects developing within one year after the completion of a project, at no cost to the school district. This time period is too short. By law all contractors

should be required to perform such action for at least three years.

5. Because so much public money is spent on schools, each state should establish specific licensing requirements for all contractors desiring to engage in school construction. Such licensing would help to screen out firms that are not well qualified for the task.

6. No school district should be permitted to issue term bonds. Interest payments on these bonds make serious inroads on the use of available construction funds. Serial bonds should be used instead.

7. Textbooks are expensive. They constitute a large element in properly equipping a school building. Savings could be effected in textbook purchasing by dealing with non-profit publishing agencies. Such agencies do not exist at the present time, but they could easily be established at a state level.

8. Too many districts buy equipment such as finished bookcases, shelves, cabinets, closets, etc. These items can be obtained cheaper if the school itself adds the finishing touches. If a district is large enough, even greater savings can be effected by employing a carpenter to construct the above equipment.

9. The inequitable distribution of taxable wealth for school purposes pragmatically results in trusting the question of quality education to a matter of geography. Is it morally defensible to permit conditions to exist whereby one pupil has five times as much taxable wealth behind him than a pupil who lives a few blocks away in an adjacent school district? I hardly think so. The state should require a standard school tax rate in every district, and distribute all school funds on a per pupil basis.

10. The major source of school revenue is the real property tax. This tax had its origin in the agricultural society of eighteenth century America. Land ownership was a reasonable index of a man's capacity to pay taxes for the support of community services. In the highly industrial society of today this is no longer true. Because of the prodigious growth of personal property and the lack of responsiveness of real property values to changing economic and social needs, the real property tax must be markedly supplemented by other forms of taxation. Specified portions of sales, income, and use taxes should be earmarked for school construction.

Out of the Minds of Eight Year Olds

Mrs. Minnie McCausland Perkins, Elementary Supervisor of Elementary Schools of East Baton Rouge Parish, Louisiana has sent in the following statements by children in Mrs. Entriiken's class. Colorful statements begin early in the lives of Louisianians.

THE EDITOR

ANDREW JACKSON

I think if Andrew Jackson walked into this room, he would say "Hello" in a big voice. He might do something, too. He might also ask me what I'm writing about; and if I said I was writing about him, he might even ask to read it.

Carol

July 7, 1961

Age — 8 years

* * * *

In the film I liked the way Andrew Jackson would talk to that general or colonel one; and when Andrew didn't even say that the general or colonel hurt him when he slashed him with his sword. General Jackson was a fighting man and never gave up with something hard. General Jackson's army sure did beat the sox off the British army down in New Orleans and General Jackson served a good term when he was president of the United States; and Andrew Jackson was a very fine man; and he was good to help America a free country and making the liberty bell ring throughout the ears of our people. That is what I have to say about Andrew Jackson, general and president.

Richmond Rocket

Chalmers Otom

June 7, 1961

* * * *

This person, who was once president of the United States, was ■

very rough, tough, never-keeping-still boy. I would never think that a boy such as he grew up with politics in his mind and was elected as president. His attitude towards politics was great, and he would fight for his country.

Kathleen Andersen
July 7, 1961
Age 8

* * * *

The part of the film that impressed me most was when he refused to polish the boots. He must have been very brave not to do this, for he must have known some punishment would come from it. I felt that it was good when he did not like to see the people being mistreated, so he decided to run for president again. I think that it was good how he always fought for what he thought was right.

Tommy Daniel
July 7, 1961

* * * *

Andrew Jackson was brave and smart,
A spokesman for common people, you know.
He fought for the commoners all the time.
He was the rich men's number one foe.

He fought for freedom of everyone,
And also for expansion of the west.
And in his fight for all these things,
He never knew when to rest.

Bruce Boisture

NOTE: This child's parents spent quite some time in a German concentration camp.

* * * *

Andrew Jackson, like Abraham Lincoln, liked to read books. Andrew Jackson could fight and liked to read books; this combination took him a long way.

Mike Sellers
July 7, 1961

County Certification of Teachers and the Changing Program of Studies in Florida, 1869-1917

MARIAN WATKINS BLACK
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Since an early period in the educational history of Florida, county school boards and county superintendents, whether *ex officio* or elected, have made vital decisions regarding the development of public schools. Their judgments have often affected that most important aspect of the schools, the curriculum. This influence of the boards has been both direct, through actions determining what was taught,¹ and indirect, through such activities as establishing specific kinds of schools, providing teachers' institutes, and issuing teaching certificates. This article reviews the actions of the Escambia County, Florida, School Board relating to teacher certification as recorded in the minutes of the board and explores the relationship of such actions to the course of study of the public schools of the county.

Certification under the Florida School Law of 1869

Both the state superintendent of public instruction and the county school officials had authority to grant teaching certificates under the 1869 Florida school law, one section of which gave the county school board the power to examine candidates for teaching and to grant certificates to those found to be qualified.² At the discretion of the school board this authority was also to be shared with the county superintendent, who might revoke or suspend these certificates, as well as those issued by other authority, "for cause manifestly sufficient."³ Since the power to license is the power to control, these laws gave the school

¹ Marian Watkins Black, "The Curriculum of the Public Schools in Escambia County, Florida, as Influenced Directly by the County School Board," *Florida Journal of Educational Research*, 1961, III. 1, pp. 39-51.

² *Laws of Florida*, 1869, Chapter 1686, No. 2.

³ *Ibid.*

board and the superintendent great authority over teachers and through them over classroom activities.

Three grades or classes of certificates were issued in the state in 1870's though there is no record as to exact standards for them. Candidates were given short examinations including reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, geography, and English grammar.⁴ It is assumed that these were the chief subjects taught in the common schools both because they were included in the certifying examinations and because the list of elementary textbooks donated by a publishing house to the trustees of the Peabody Education Fund in the late 1860's for use by pupils in southern schools was limited to these subjects, exclusive of writing which was among those given for intermediate classes.⁵

The minutes of the Escambia County School Board in the mid 1880's contain frequent references to the giving of examinations for teaching certificates. On the first page of the oldest extant minute book are recorded the results of such an examination. The examining committee, comprised entirely of school board members, reported that it had issued one second-grade certificate, four third-grade certificates, and had disapproved the qualifications of four applicants.⁶ There was no mention of the subjects upon which the candidates were examined, but it is assumed that they were the same as or similar to those recorded in the preceding paragraph.

During this period the members of the board were setting policies

⁴ Thomas Everette Cochran, *History of Public-School Education in Florida*, Bulletin, 1921, No. 1. Tallahassee, Florida; State Department of Education, 1921 (Lancaster, Pa.: The New Era Printing Company, Inc., 1921) p. 42, fn.

⁵ *Proceedings of the Trustees of the Peabody Education Fund*, Salem, Mass.: Press of George W. Pease and Co., 1869, pp. 27, 28, 30.

Appleton and Company offered one thousand volumes on branches of elementary education: twenty-five thousand each Webster's Elementary Speller, Webster's Elementary Reader, and Cornell's First Step in Geography; twenty-thousand, Quakenbos' Primary Arithmetic, and five thousand, First Book in Grammar.

For intermediate classes the following were offered: five thousand volumes each of the National Second Reader, Davies' Written Arithmetic, Monteith's Second Book in Geography, and Beer's Penmanship. Three thousand volumes of Monteith's United States History, five hundred volumes each of First Book of Science, Jarvis' Physiology and Health, Peck's Ganot's Natural Philosophy, and Smith and Martin's Book-keeping. (Proceedings of the Trustees of the Peabody Education Fund. Salem, Mass.: Press of Geo. W. Pease and Co., 1869) Third meeting, May 28, 1867, pp. 27, 28, 30.

⁶ *Minutes of the Escambia Board of Public Instruction*, October 8, 1884-September 8, 1885 (Hereafter referred to as Minutes.)

(The second-grade certificate was issued to Miss Sallie Rogers; the third-grade, to Mrs. Mary Palmer, James Crowell, Victoria Mark, and Miss Fannie Henderson.)

for the giving of examinations and for the granting of certificates. Twice they permitted a person who had failed the examination to be given a second trial. They had also voted that no person be permitted more than two trials within a twelve-month period. They had decided that all persons desiring to renew certificates for a second year must again "stand" the examinations. They had appointed two board members to prepare one set of questions for the second-grade certificate and three sets for the third-grade to be printed for future examinations.⁷

Under the conditions then existing, the county board of public instruction selected the subjects upon which the candidates would be examined and determined the questions, thus emphasizing the importance of the opinions of the school board members regarding the specified knowledge which must have been mastered by the teacher. Likewise, in setting policies concerning the necessity of an applicant's again taking the examination and passing in order to renew a certificate—county certificates being in effect for one year only, the board implied by its action that a teacher must show from time to time through performance on examinations that he had retained a minimum amount of information.⁸ Apparently, in determining the number of times that a candidate might take the examinations within a calendar year, the board was acting upon a belief that an individual needed time in which to acquire the designated knowledge. These policies undoubtedly influenced the classroom practices of teachers, for it appears likely that those who had been granted certificates under such conditions would in their teaching emphasize mastery of the same subjects upon which they had been examined, would judge pupil success by their performance when taking examinations.

Numerous records of the results of certifying examinations continued to be recorded until August, 1888, when the following resolution was adopted:⁹

Resolved that all teachers who do not attend the full term of the Teachers Institute which is to be held in School building no. 1 commencing Sept. 24th, 1888, and continuing for five days shall be required to stand an examination before having their certificates renewed.

⁷ *Minutes*, March 9, 1885; May 9, 28, 1885; Aug. 8, 1885. (P. K. Yonge and George S. Hallmark were the board members.)

⁸ Cochran, *Op. cit.*, p. 42.

⁹ *Minutes*, Aug. 8, 1888.

Though a similar institute had been held the previous year, no reference to its being used as a basis for the extension of a certificate was discovered. Evidently in 1888 for the first time in Escambia County attendance at a county teachers' institute was made the equivalent of passing an examination for the purpose of renewing a certificate. The use of in-service activities such as the institute undoubtedly influenced the curriculum. Such influences have been dealt with elsewhere, hence will not be discussed here.¹⁰

Certification under the Florida School Law of 1889

Under the new State Constitution of 1885 and the School Law of 1889, the county school board and the county school superintendent continued to give examinations for the second-grade and the third-grade certificates, which were issued by the board to those passing satisfactory examinations. However, under this law the State Board of Education, through the State Superintendent, specified the subjects on which the candidates would be examined and set the grade averages upon which certificates might be issued—75 per cent for third-grade, 80 per cent for second. Regulations of the State required that an applicant for a third-grade certificate be examined in reading, writing, elementary arithmetic, spelling, primary geography, United States and Florida history, physiology and hygiene, and the theory and practice of teaching. In addition to these the candidate for a second-grade certificate was examined in “complete arithmetic, advanced geography, English grammar and composition, outlines of general history, and the elements of bookkeeping.”¹¹ Hence, for the first time certification of teachers in Florida involved not only a degree of competence in the subjects to be taught, but also a modicum of knowledge of teaching methods.

A student of the history of Florida schools of this period recorded that most schools offered “a course in reading, writing, elementary arithmetic, spelling, primary geography, outlines of United States history, and the history of Florida.” In some schools there was in addition “a course in physical and political geography, elements of bookkeeping, English grammar and composition, outlines of general

¹⁰ Marian Watkins Black, “Florida County School Boards and the Curriculum, 1885-1920,” *Peabody Journal of Education*, 1961, 38, 4, pp. 225-233.

¹¹ Cochran, *Op. cit.*, pp. 94-95.

history, and more advanced courses in arithmetic and in United States history." By 1889 a course in physiology and hygiene was required in every school by state law.¹²

Even a casual glance at the foregoing paragraphs indicates that the course of study in the common (elementary) schools was identical with the subjects upon which a third-grade certificate was based, and that the "other" schools (probably those reaching upward toward the developing secondary curriculum) offered subjects similar to those upon which an applicant for a second-grade certificate was examined.

In 1885 School Number 1 in Pensacola, had included analysis and parsing, natural science, and natural philosophy in its course of study for the eighth grade; however, at this time such subjects were not required for inclusion in the examinations given by the county school board. Likewise, although hygiene was added at least by 1886, there is no record of its being included by the county in the examinations prior to 1889 when required by the state.¹³ The exact relation between courses taught in the schools and the subjects included in the examinations is not always clear, since the early minutes fail to record the subjects upon which teachers were examined. Yet it appears that in some instances, as in those cited above, certain subjects were offered in the Escambia county schools before teachers were examined upon them. Hence, the county school board through its action in expanding the course of study influenced state certification.

In July, 1889, Superintendent N. B. Cook was instructed by the school board to publish in the daily papers a notice that he would be in his office August 19-24 and September 16-21, inclusive, to examine colored teachers and August 21-31 and September 25-30, inclusive, to examine white teachers, these examinations to be in accord with the new law. Yonge and Hallmark, the representatives of the board who had served as a committee to prepare questions on previous examinations, were again asked to serve as the examining committee and to prepare the questions.¹⁴

That there was dissatisfaction with the manner of awarding certificates was evidenced by the fact that a principal read before the board

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 94.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 95.

¹⁴ *Minutes*, July 25, 1889.

a paper indicating his displeasure at having received a third-class, instead of a second-class, certificate. At the close of his presentation he resigned, his resignation being immediately accepted to become effective in fifteen days.¹⁵ Perhaps his expressed dissatisfaction was indicative of existing discontent with the administration of certification at the county level.

Certification under the Florida School Law of 1893

In accordance with the School Law of 1893 the state school regulations specified the dates in 1894 for the giving of examinations throughout the state, May 8 and September 4 being selected. For the first time examination questions were furnished to the counties by the state superintendent, W. N. Sheats, though the county board continued to appoint a grading committee. This committee, however, consisted of outstanding teachers rather than board members as in the past.¹⁶

This new law also provided for the state's awarding life primary certificates to applicants recommended by the county school board who met certain qualifications with regard to teaching experience and success.¹⁷ The county school board by recommending these teachers for certification for life, through its selections and recommendations influenced the primary curriculum for some years, it being true to a great extent that the teacher is the curriculum.

In September, 1894, when sixty-four persons took the teacher's examination, a sheet was attached to the minutes showing the grades made on each examination in each subject by each candidate and the over-all average of each. The same subjects were specified by the school law of 1893 for those attempting to secure either second-grade or third-grade certificates, including all those formerly given for the second-grade. The class of certificate issued to a candidate was dependent upon his examination grades. In addition to the subjects for the lower grade certificates, applicants for first-grade certificates were

¹⁵ *Minutes*, Dec. 7, 1889.

¹⁶ *Minutes*, May 7, 1894.

(The members of the grading committee were W. E. Griffin, James M. Tate, and Mrs. A. K. Sutor.)

¹⁷ *Ibid.*

The teachers thus receiving life primary certificates were Mrs. E. J. Milam, Miss Fannie Henderson, Miss Nannie Wentworth, Mrs. W. W. McReynolds, and Miss Helen Mitchell.

examined on civil government, bookkeeping, algebra, and physical geography.¹⁸ It is easily seen that the subjects included in the examinations for the second-grade and third-grade certificates were those commonly taught in the elementary school; while persons attempting to secure first-grade certificates were examined upon additional subjects which they were likely to teach in high schools. All applicants were still required to be examined in theory and practice of teaching.

By 1899, the teachers of the county were interested in making changes in the law regulating teacher certification by providing that third-grade certificates be in effect for three years, the second-grade for four years, with the first-grade continuing in effect during the continuous teaching of the holder. A petition from Escambia County teachers requesting these changes was approved by the county school board and forwarded to the county representatives in the state legislature at Tallahassee.¹⁹ However, this suggestion was ineffective and certification of teachers continued for the next few years under the 1893 law.

Certification, 1903-1917

In 1905 the Escambia school board rescinded its former action of refusing to recognize certificates secured by teachers residing in the county who had gone elsewhere in the state for the purpose of taking the examinations.²⁰ By its vote to recognize such certificates as equivalent to those secured in Escambia County, the board recognized that the use of the uniform examination questions prepared by the state superintendent and sent to the several counties in the state had effected a condition whereby certificates issued by all county school boards were somewhat comparable in value. This situation seems to have brought to a close the major influence of the Escambia County school board upon the course of study through its certification of teachers.

By 1903 though the county school board had lost most of its authority over certification, its ideas and practices had been incorporated into

¹⁸ *Minutes*, Sept. 17, 1894; Nita K. Pyburn, *The History of the Development of a Single System of Education in Florida, 1822-1903*. (Tallahassee, Florida: The Florida State University, 1954) pp. 146, 147.

¹⁹ *Minutes*, April 11, 1899.

²⁰ *Minutes*, July 11, 1905.

state law. The subjects for the three classes of certificates—first-grade, second-grade, and third-grade—were stated specifically in the regulations of the State Board of Education, rather than being left to the discretion of the local officials. Questions were sent to the county superintendents by the state superintendent. Dates for the examinations were scheduled by the superintendent. However, county school boards continued to name committees of teachers who graded the examinations.

This situation continued until 1917 when a board of examiners composed of three eminently successful teachers was appointed by the State Board of Education to prepare and conduct examinations and to grade the papers. These teachers traveled throughout the state, giving examinations in each county at least once yearly.²¹ This development removed the last vestige of basic authority for certification of teachers from the county, though the superintendent continued to have routine responsibilities incident to the holding of the examinations.

During the period, 1869-1917, teacher certification had provided a means for local school board members to use their examining authority to insure, to the degree that examinations can, competence: first, in the adopted course of study (knowledge of subject matter) and second, in knowledge of teaching methods. The means used to influence the course of study were selection of subjects upon which the examinations were based; posing the questions; giving the examinations; grading the examination papers; and determining grade averages for issuing certificates. The emphasis given to each of these likely caused teachers to stress in their classes those subjects and that information upon which they had been examined. Undoubtedly teachers also tended to use examinations as the sole means of evaluation of pupil progress, and in the examinations given pupils to use questions similar to those which had been asked of them. The curriculum in its broad sense was also probably affected in the late 1880's and early 1890's by the decision of the board to extend certificates on the basis of attendance at teacher institutes. Experiences of teachers there surely influenced learning experiences which they provided for boys and girls.

In the early part of the half-century period included in this survey,

²¹ *Laws of Florida*, 1917, Chapter 7372.

when certification was largely in the hands of the county board, power was wielded to control the course of study of the schools by the means delineated above. As indicated, this control involved both the what, the program of studies, and the how, the methods. By 1917 the state had gradually assumed responsibility for and almost complete regulation of certification of teachers. Parallel to the increasing dominance of the state in what had once been a joint county-state enterprise, the influence of the county school board over the program of studies in the local schools had waned. However, this influence which had been exerted during the years when the pattern for both certification and the program of studies was evolving continued to be evident for many years, in some respects continues even today.

Values and Educational Administration

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The recent emphasis upon administrative theory has underscored the problem of the place of values in educational administration. In the literature of educational administration, two quite different emphases have emerged. One stresses the descriptive analysis of values and places its major focus on discovering the actual effect of social and individual values in the administrative process. The other emphasizes the philosophical treatment of values as ideals. Some writers have discussed this difference in emphasis in terms of the is-ought dichotomy.¹ They have quite properly observed that administrative theory must be concerned only with the "is" and cannot provide answers to moral questions or set ideals. That this point had to be made for purposes of logical clarity cannot be doubted. However, recognition of the differences between descriptive (is) statements and normative (ought) statements marks a beginning and not an end.

Both endeavors, the attempt to describe the place of values in the administrative process and the attempt to develop systematic philosophical approaches to values as ideals in educational administration, now stand far short of accomplishment. Both are needed and they are not necessarily conflicting as long as we keep our terminology straight. They are just different.

In this paper some of the problems needing consideration in each of these areas are presented. This is done to clarify and illustrate the different tasks falling to those concerned with the investigation of either area. First, we shall look at problems involved in the descriptive

¹ See, for example, Daniel E. Griffiths, "Toward a Theory of Administrative Behavior," *Administrative Behavior in Education*, ed. Roald F. Campbell and Russel T. Gregg (New York: Harper and Bros., 1957), pp. 365-66; and Andrew W. Halpin, "The Development of Theory in Educational Administration," *Administrative Theory in Education*, ed. A. W. Halpin (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958), pp. 6-7. It might be of historical interest to note that the logical difference between "is" and "ought" statements was discussed by the philosopher David Hume as early as 1739.

approach to values in educational administration and then at problems peculiar to the normative approach.

The Descriptive Approach

The investigator wishing to study values descriptively must first formulate a concise definition of values. Often, values have not been clearly distinguished from preferences, attitudes or norms. Two of the more carefully formulated definitions follow. Davis states: "A value is that which is considered desirable, which is thought worthy of being pursued" A similar kind of definition is offered by Kluckhohn: "A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of action."³

Once an adequate definition has been formulated, it is necessary for the researcher to devise classifications of values. To cite an example, Getzels developed value categories based on Spindler's classification of values as traditional or emergent.⁴ Using these categories, Prince then devised hypotheses and instruments to test the hypotheses in a school setting.⁵

These activities—definition, classification, hypothesis, test—are, of course, methodological concerns. Topical problems which might be dealt with by those concerned with the descriptive approach to values are of the following kind:

1. How does the position one holds in an organization influence his values? For example, do a teacher's values change in subtle ways when he becomes a principal? Do teachers, principals and chief school administrators differ as groups in terms of value orientation?

³ Kingsley Davis, *Human Society* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1948), p. 124.

⁴ Clyde Kluckhohn *et al.*, "Values and Value-Orientations in the Theory of Action," *Toward a General Theory of Action*, ed. Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1951), p. 395.

⁵ See George D. Spindler, "Education in a Transforming American Culture," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXV (Summer, 1955), 145-56; and J. W. Getzels, "Changing Values Challenge the Schools," *The School Review*, LXV (Spring, 1957), 97-102.

⁶ Richard Prince, "Individual Values and Administrative Effectiveness," *Administrator's Notebook*, VI (December, 1957).

2. How does the degree of congruence of values held by the various members of an organization affect factors such as morale, productivity, cohesion, and so on? For example, is teacher morale higher when teachers and their administrators hold similar values?
3. How do values influence administrative decisions? Can we reasonably predict that a superintendent of schools with a certain type of value orientation will make certain kinds of decisions?
4. What is the relationship between personal values and organizational values? How do the members of a profession, for example, school administrators, learn the values of the professional group? How do personal values influence selection and entry into a professional group? How does the personal-organizational values relationship influence conflict, satisfaction, and placement of loyalties in an organizational setting?

These types of questions mark the descriptive approach to values. While our list is meant to be illustrative rather than exhaustive, these few examples indicate the nature of the task of those concerned with the descriptive study of values.

The Normative Approach

The increased understanding of the administrative process which empirical research on values could add is crucial for both the social scientist and the practicing administrator. However, administration, unlike science, is also concerned with ends. The administrator, as a decision-maker, after careful analysis of the effects of various courses of action and of appropriate means, must eventually make a selection from among competing ends.⁶ The educational administrator must be not only a student of human behavior but he must also be something of a philosopher. Concern with the questions of educational philosophy and with the normative approach to values is thus an integral part of educational administration as an intellectual discipline. After all, the

⁶ For a careful consideration of the problem of selection from multiple ends in educational administration see Jack A. Culbertson, Paul B. Jacobson, and Theodore L. Reller, *Administrative Relationships* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), especially Chap. 8.

alternative to reasoned, philosophical considerations of “ought” questions is unreasoned emotion and bias.

What then are the kinds of questions with which the investigator of values in the normative sense deals? Let us list a few here:

1. What is the “good” school? What should be the ends of education?
2. What is the “good” society and what should be its relation to the institutional agency concerned with education? To be more specific, what are the implications for education of the values underlying a democratic society?
3. In what ways do different systematic philosophies imply different kinds of educational philosophies?
4. What are the specific behavioral implications of a philosophy of education for the educational administrator? In other words, what difference for administrative behavior should the acceptance (or rejection) of a particular philosophy of education make? It might be added that failure to deal with this question is perhaps one of the reasons why philosophy of education is so frequently seen as divorced from practical action.

These few examples illustrate the topical problems which might be dealt with by those concerned with the normative approach to values. As with the descriptive approach, there are methodological concerns as well. An example is the problem of developing criteria against which competing philosophies of education may be assessed. Another question pertains to the critical and clarifying function of philosophy of education. O'Connor,⁷ in delineating a relatively different approach to the philosophy of education, suggests that this essentially analytical activity of the philosopher of education is one of his major functions.

Concluding Comments

We have attempted to illustrate the different tasks falling to those concerned with the descriptive approach to values in educational administration and those concerned with the normative approach. It

⁷ D. J. O'Connor, *An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1957).

is held that both kinds of activities are perfectly legitimate and necessary intellectual endeavors. However, it is important not to confuse them with each other since there are some essential differences which mark the two kinds of activities.

The broadly perceptive administrator needs to know about the way values actually influence behavior *and* he must be able to make intelligent judgments about ends, that is, value judgments. Preparation programs in educational administration should provide opportunities for potential administrators to develop understandings of both areas.

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Social Science and Literature

VICTOR BAHOU

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While the barriers that have separated the various scholarly disciplines in social science have fallen less readily than the walls of Jericho, they have, nonetheless, been giving way to the probing and analysis of scholars in various fields. In fact the time has arrived, when one may readily admit to having embraced the interdisciplinary approach without apology and with a firm belief that the extension of the frontiers of knowledge demand it. The importance of psychology, economics, history, politics, and sociology to one another is readily conceded. In support of this, a voluminous bibliography could be cited of works which would extend from the nineteenth century trail-blazers of modern social science to the investigations of innumerable teams of scholars who are currently engaged in joint research projects from Harvard University to the University of California. We need mention only a few names such as Talcott Parsons, Erich Fromm, Harold Lasswell, T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel-Brunswik, and C. Wright Mills, from among the many who have pointed to the importance of reciprocal relations among the social sciences.¹ Furthermore, the signal importance of the social sciences to the fields of medicine, law, and religion is now well recognized.

However, the interdisciplinary interest lends itself and offers promise at still another level and dimension. Despite the reservations and resistance of some, it may be argued that the importance of the humanities and arts to social science should not be ignored. Artists and dramatists along with poets, novelists, essayists, and others have concerned themselves with human behavior, institutions, values, socio-political problems and the like.

¹ Talcott Parsons, *The Social System* (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1951). Talcott Parsons, Robert F. Bales and Edward Shils, editors, *Working Papers in the Theory of Action* (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1953). Harold Lasswell, *Psychopathology and Politics* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930). Sebastian De Grazia, *The Political Community* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948). T. W. Adorno and others, *The Authoritarian Personality* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950).

In a recent article, Professor Leonard Kimbrell calls attention to the interrelatedness of art and history. He emphasizes the well of information which awaits the historian who examines the art of past civilizations. "Though history cannot be told by art alone," says Kimbrell, "through its art a period can be known. The spirit of the time, the things that mattered then . . . the images of the gods, or lack of them; the tools of commerce or of daily life; the masks; the weapons—can be seen and felt."³ And before him, Leonard Adam addressing himself to the same question maintained that "Art is not an isolated phenomenon, it is a part of culture, linked up with the history of the culture and with the history of the people. Consequently, the understanding of every national art is helped by a knowledge of history, and there are important historical conclusions to be derived from the study of art."³

Numerous studies and articles, in recent years, attest and further confirm the relevance of the arts, artists, literature, and writers to social science. They also affirm that much of the product of artists and writers reflect the impact of the social milieu. In a penetrating article, "The Politics of My Novels," Ignazio Silone leaves no doubt about the impact of socio-political experiences on his literary works. He is convinced that except for his experiences, he may not have written at all, or else that he would have written of other topics and in another manner.⁴ In an earlier reference Silone had described much of his purpose in writing as having a direct connection with his early life in the Abruzzi district.

There was a point in my rebellion where hatred and love coincided; both the facts which justified my indignation and the moral motives which demanded it stemmed directly from the district where I was born. This explains, too, why everything I have happened to write up to now, and probably everything I shall ever write, although I have traveled and lived abroad, is concerned solely with this same district, or more precisely with the part of it which can be seen from the house where I was born—not more than thirty or forty kilometers on one side or the other.⁵

³ Leonard B. Kimbrell, "Art and the Image of Man," *Social Education*, XXII (January 1958), p. 10.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

⁴ Ignazio Silone, "The Politics of My Novels," *Dissent*, III (Spring 1956), p. 178.

⁵ Richard Crossman, editor, *The God That Failed* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949), p. 97.

Another contemporary writer, Irving Howe, offers a perceptive study of what happens to the novel when the novelist is subjected to the pressures of politics and political ideology. His analysis covers such writers as Stendhal, Dostoevsky, Conrad, Turgenev, Henry James, Malraux, Koestler, Orwell, and others. Howe examines a number of major novels, "each of them shaped and colored by a dominant variety of modern thought, to see what violent intrusion of politics does to, and perhaps for, the literary imagination." He reminds us of Stendhal's remark that, "Politics in a work of literature is like a pistol-shot in the middle of a concert, something loud and vulgar, and yet a thing to which it is not possible to refuse one's attention."⁶

In another interesting work, Professor Joseph Blotner has sought to illuminate that uncertain frontier between the novel and social science. For him, the novel can be a politically functional instrument; it can serve to mirror national character, and may analyze and reflect individual and group behavior. Even though a reader has been concerned with a body of novels which do not deliberately seek to "delineate national character, . . . he will still arrive at some conception of national behavior patterns." For example, he suggests that if most novels about a particular group or society deal with underground activities, coups d'etat, or revolutions, the reader is justified in assuming that this is a people which takes its politics seriously

and emotionally. If most of the novels concern parliamentary give and take, clever use of rules, strategic marches and countermarches, he has a right to conclude that this national group has achieved some degree of political sophistication.⁷

He considers the novel a political instrument if it serves to gain the reader's support for a cause, turns him against a cause, or even if it causes him to re-evaluate a previously held belief.

Literature and the Image of Man by Leo Lowenthal is a penetrating and profound analysis of the socio-political perspective of such writers as Cervantes, Shakespeare, Moliere, and Ibsen among others. The task of the sociologist of literature according to Lowenthal, requires that he seek

⁶ Irving Howe, *Politics And The Novel* (New York: Horizon Press, 1957). p. 15.

⁷ Joseph Blotner, *The Political Novel* (Garden City: Doubleday & Company, 1955), p. 48.

to relate the experience of the writer's imaginary characters and situations to the historical climate from which they derive. He has to transform the private equation of themes and stylistic means into social equations.⁸

For example, he suggests that Ibsen's critique of middle-class society reflects the dilemma of liberalism. It is a reaction of disillusion and disenchantment with a middle-class which he felt had not lived up to the expectations and claims of its apologists. In fact, says Lowenthal,

most generalized concepts about human nature found in literature prove on close inspection to be related to social and political change The literature of any period gives its audience meaningful portraits of human types.⁹

Along with egoism and aesthetic enthusiasm, George Orwell included historical impulse and political purpose as great motives in writing. He uses the word political in the widest sense, and described political purpose as the desire to push the world in a certain direction, "to alter other people's idea of the kind of society that they should strive after . . ." He goes on to say, "no book is genuinely free from political bias. The opinion that art should have nothing to do with politics is itself a political attitude."¹⁰ In a more specific and direct comment as to his personal motives in writing, Orwell held that he sought to make political writing into an art.

My starting point is always a feeling of partisanship, a sense of injustice. When I sit down to write a book, I do not say to myself, 'I am going to produce a work of art.' I write it because there is some lie that I want to expose, some fact to which I want to draw attention, and my initial concern is to get a hearing . . .¹¹

Still another writer has recently reminded us that there exists between poetry and the study of politics a significant and essential relationship which political science ignores at the peril of weakening its purpose and function. He contends that the arts represent the life

⁸ Leo Lowenthal, *Literature And The Image of Man: Sociological Studies of the European Drama and Novel, 1600-1900*. (Boston: The Beacon Press, 1957), p. 2.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

¹⁰ George Orwell, *A Collection of Essays* (Garden City: Doubleday & Company, 1957), p. 316.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 318.

of the nation, and are, therefore, major conditioners of the political structure. According to Boynton, "The particular role of poetry in the area of the study of politics is easy to see."

The nature of our science of politics, the kinds of problems we ask, the types of solutions to policy questions which we find acceptable, are all functions, not only of the methods of science available, but also and primarily our view of what political reality is.¹²

An interesting study by Cecil Larsen offers a delineation of the shift from a romantic nineteenth century in Negro poetry, which emphasized the Negro gratitude to his Christian masters for saving him from damnation, to twentieth century themes of Negro protest.¹³

F. M. Todd of the University of Tasmania has recently published a very interesting study of events and times of Wordsworth, in an attempt to trace their effect on the development of his ideas on man and society. Here is a study of the development of an outstanding poet, whose shift from a liberal to what is considered a very conservative position has been the cause of more than a little controversy and speculation.¹⁴

The historian, C. V. Wedgwood, has also published a work which seeks to delineate the many manifestations of politics in the poetry published during the reign of the Stuart kings.¹⁵ Miss Wedgwood concedes that in this area which lies between history and literature, there is much "of incidental interest and some buried, or partly buried treasure."¹⁶ Who would disagree when it is recalled that this is the period which claims Ben Johnson and Milton.

The eminent critic and playwright, Joseph Wood Krutch, has maintained that "What a Shakespeare has to say about human nature and human conduct is likely to be as true as, and rather more important than what the summarizer of ten thousand questionnaires can tell us."¹⁷ While some may feel that he has overstated the case, we cannot dis-

¹² Robert Boynton, "A Poetic Approach To Politics," *The Journal of Politics*, XX (November 1958), p. 691.

¹³ Cecil Larsen, "The Race Problem in Contemporary American Negro Poetry," *Sociology and Social Research*, XXXVIII (January-February 1954).

¹⁴ F. M. Todd, *Politics & the Poet: A Study of Wordsworth* (London: Methuen, 1957).

¹⁵ C. V. Wedgwood, *Poetry & Politics Under the Stuarts* (London: Cambridge University Press, 1960).

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

¹⁷ See, Howard Lowry, "The Human Privilege," *The American Scholar* XXVIII (Spring 1959). p. 160.

regard the importance and significance of the political drama which reflects and is also an instrument of politics.¹⁸ It is the writer's conviction that the political drama is indeed a fruitful area for considerable research along the paths already outlined in such works as the political novel, poetry, and the like. Not only the dramatic works themselves, but a contemporary playwright has recently reminded social scientists of the importance of studying audiences in the theatre. According to Gore Vidal,

The play acts upon the audience, which is society today; the audience reacts and in its reaction one can get a sense of the superstitions and prejudices which obtain. Theater can be revelatory. In fact, I wish sociologists would spend more time in the theater and less in conducting polls and drawing graphs. Any audience at *Tea and Sympathy* or *Auntie Mame* will tell them more about the way we live now than a house-to-house canvass from Morristown to White Plains with pad and pencil.¹⁹

Noting that dramas quite often are concerned with such themes as love, morality, idealism, power, career, and the like, Professors McGranahan and Wayne undertook to study the content of the forty-five most popular dramas produced in Germany and the United States (Broadway) in the year 1927. Their findings and conclusions as to the themes which writers, producers, and audiences in the two countries seemed to prefer and the different emphasis delineated are most interesting and provocative as to the question of the extent to which "national character" is reflected in a nation's drama.²⁰

There seems to be considerable justification for the opinion that the study of the political drama is due to become a fruitful area for research.

While the research and writing which has been done in the area of concern, in this paper, has not been definitive; it nonetheless cannot be ignored. These inquiries and statements have raised some seemingly important questions. With reference to literature in its widest

¹⁸ See, Victor Bahou, *The Political Drama in America Since 1930*. (Unpublished dissertation, Syracuse University Library, 1960. Also, Casper Nannes, *Politics In The American Drama* (Washington, D.C.: The Catholic University of America Press, 1960).

¹⁹ Gore Vidal, "Debate in the Moonlight," *The Reporter*, XXI (November 26, 1959), p. 35.

²⁰ D. V. McGranahan and I. Wayne, "German and American Traits Reflected in Popular Drama," *Human Relations*, I, 1948, 429-55.

meaning (poetry, novel, drama, essay) we may legitimately seek the extent to which it serves a political function. Do political novels, dramas and the like reflect certain societal reactions to political institutions and practices? To what extent does such writing and production reflect political reality? What legitimate inferences can we make from them regarding the political beliefs of a society, the nature of its politics and political institutions, and the nature of the extant power structure and its impact on the writer, or artist, and the reception to their work.

In what other ways does literature serve to illuminate the major aspects of politics and government? Can we study shifts in literary, dramatic and artistic themes in different periods and under variant political and governmental forms and thereby delineate shifts in the political concerns and institutions of a people? To what extent is such work an effective instrument of propaganda? Does it serve to inspire support for a positive social or political movement? Can it serve the purposes of a political resistance movement; furthermore can it be utilized as a means for asserting positive political control?

There seem to be substantial grounds for following that small but challenging group of social scientists who have ventured into this field and have suggested that writers and artists do reflect either consciously or unconsciously their milieu and the world of social reality. Poets, novelists, playwrights and the like can, in some cases, communicate with their audience and convey a socio-political theme with considerably more effect than the social scientists who restrict themselves to certain empirical methods which sometimes condemn some potentially excellent social scientists to what Alfred North Whitehead is supposed to have referred to as "intellectual celibacy."

Those involved in curriculum revision, in our colleges, will do well to take note of these developments, and to offer courses which will impress students with the fact that the humanities and the social sciences are not mutually exclusive areas.

Basic Principles of Effective Teaching Based on Adjectives Used by School Principals in Teachers' Efficiency Reports

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Under Title VII of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), Research in New Educational Media, United States Office of Education, the Fontana Unified School District received a grant of money to conduct research in the use of closed circuit television for the purpose of in-service education of teachers during the 1959-60 and the 1960-61 school years.

In-service education programs for teachers are based on certain well organized and systematically planned objectives, just as all other education programs are; or rather, as they should be. They do not simply involve activity without concern for the overall ultimate outcome. The principal objectives for such programs are based on the ideas of the principals and administrative personnel responsible for the instructional program in the respective district involved. Accordingly, in connection with the NDEA closed circuit television project it was imperative to know what the notions of Fontana school principals and central staff administrative personnel were as to what really constitutes an effective teacher.

This is the first in a series of studies designed to assess the notions of Fontana principals and central office administrative personnel as to what constitutes both an effective and an ineffective teacher. More specifically, this study was concerned with identifying and describing a series of basic principles of effective teaching based on the adjectives used by referenced personnel in the evaluation of teachers in Fontana schools.

More than 1,000 teacher effectiveness reports accomplished by principals in the Fontana schools during the past two school years were examined for the purpose of determining adjectives which were used to describe effective and ineffective teaching, or qualifications which the effective or ineffective teachers might have. In addition, referenced principals and administrative personnel were asked to indicate in writing the critical characteristics of both the effective and the ineffective teacher, and adjectives were also taken from these descriptions.

More than 300 different adjectives were extracted from referenced sources. These adjectives were first arranged into positive and negative compliments (permissive-demanding, tactful-tactless, etc.), and corrected for redundancy. Following this procedure, the adjectives were placed into related groupings, and a summarized description of the various groups was developed.

Four separate task scientists were asked to examine the initial groups and to withdraw or change adjective pairs among the various six categories. Each of the separate scientists were asked to suggest a principle that the adjectives in the various groups suggested in relation to effective teaching.

The positive adjectives were then arraigned in order of their frequency of occurrence in reference resource data from which they were extracted, with the most frequently appearing ones placed first. Where only negatively stated adjectives were found, the complementary positively stated adjective was substituted.

Following this, the categories or groupings of related adjectives were further arraigned in order of the aggregate frequency of adjectives within the respective groups in the basic resource data (teacher effectiveness reports and critical characteristic statements), and with the category having the highest frequency placed in the first position.

Basic Principles of Effective Teaching

The descriptions of the various categories were then restated in terms of basic principles of effective teaching, and with the principles arranged on the basis of the adjective frequency count referred to.

First Principle—Leadership Qualifications. The first principle of effective teaching as visualized by Fontana principals and administra-

tors involves the teacher playing a successful leadership role in relation to students under their responsibility. Four separate components appear to be present in this principle, which have been identified as follows, and with the following adjectives on which they are based included:

- .. organization and responsibility—organizable, responsible, effective, resourceful, consistent, thorough, and objective;
- .. human relations and decision pattern—democratic, cooperative, tactful, encouraging, sharing, permissive, helping, supportive, receptive, and following;
- .. methodological—prompt, controlled, complete, decisive, and expeditious; and
- .. fortitude or courage—courageous, commanding, ambitious, and aspiring.

Second Principle-Personality Attributes. The second most important basic principle indicative of an effective teacher is the possession of sound and mature emotional and psychosocial development and attributes with respect to their role as a teacher, and as a citizen in the community. Five separate component factors appear to be present in the adjectives included under this principle:

- .. emotional maturity—mature, stable, tolerant, patient, adaptable, calm, secure, and flexible;
- .. psycho-social maturity—relaxed, approachable, moderate, satisfied, and humorous;
- .. adequate personal orientation—sensitivity, and realistic;
- .. adequate physical health—healthy, and non-complaining; and
- .. enthusiasm and dynamic—dynamic, enthusiastic, optimistic, active, vivacious, elated, uninhibited, superior, and fearless.

Third Principle—Effective Communicative Skills. The third most important basic principle maintains that an effective teacher must have effective communicative skills, and be able to demonstrate them continuously in the guidance of learning activity. Four separate components appear to be included in the adjectives contained under this principle:

- .. stimulating and dramatic—stimulating, dramatic, expressive, responsive, and pleasant;
- .. instructive and fluent—instructive, fluent, rapportable, and modulated;
- .. a good listener—listenable; and
- .. concrete and concise—concrete, and concise.

Fourth Principle—Intellectual Capability and Training. The fourth principle maintains that an effective teacher must have good intellectual capability, and must be well trained in order to play the role of an effective teacher. Four separate components appear to be represented by the adjectives under this category or principle:

- .. intellectual capability—capable, competent, talented, creative, and wise;
- .. well trained—skilled, well trained, clear, and precise;
- .. dynamic and imaginative—dynamic, imaginative, original, and alert; and
- .. interested—interested.

Fifth Principle—Good Attitude Traits. The fifth principle maintains that effective teachers must have good and acceptable attitudes relative to working with children and youth, and toward playing the role of a teacher in the community. Three separate components appear to be included in the adjectives under this category:

- .. understanding and considerate—understanding, considerate, sincere, human, kind, warm, friendly, genuine, pleasant, and empathic;
- .. dedicated—dedicated, gracious, positive, and willing; and
- .. civic minded—civic minded, and uncritical.

Sixth Principle—Acceptable Character Traits. Finally, a person must have acceptable character traits that are compatible to the group thinking of the community and local school personnel to be an effective teacher. Five separate components appear to be included in the adjectives under this category:

- .. honesty and impartiality—honest, impartial, ethical, fair, true, and judicious;
- .. professional integrity—professional, constructive, sound, and industrious;
- .. group acceptance—popular, loyal, and reliable;
- .. careful and efficient—careful, efficient, strong, and assuring; and
- .. refinement and dignity—refinement, dignity, attractive, and neat.

SUMMARY

This is the report of a study of the adjectives used by Fontana school principals and central staff personnel in describing the effective and ineffective teacher, and the further development of six basic principles of effective teaching based on the grouping of the above adjectives into related groups or categories.

This study is a portion of a larger study designed to obtain the notions of Fontana school principals and administrators with a view toward developing an acceptable in-service education program for teachers for use in connection with a closed circuit television project made possible under a “matched dollar” grant from Title VII of the National Defense Education Act, Research in New Educational Media.

The six basic principles developed in this study as being indicative of an effective teacher are: (1) leadership qualifications, (2) personality attributes, (3) effective communicative skills, (4) intellectual capability and training, (5) good attitude traits, and (6) acceptable character traits.

References

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PEABODY BIMONTHLY BOOKNOTES

Selected Professional and Cultural Books for a Teacher's Library

NOVEMBER, 1961

Booknotes Committee: Susan B. Riley, William A. FitzGerald, and Norman Frost, Chairman

Secretary to the Committee: Lou Ann Warren

Annotators for this Issue: William Alexander, M. E. Alford, Jack Allen, Myrtle Bomar, John E. Brewton, C. S. Chadwick, Robert L. Calatrello, Frances Cheney, Herbert F. Clark, Robert E. Cleary, Beatrice Clutch, Kenneth Cooper, Mabel Corry, Will S. DeLoach, Norman Frost, William Griffin, Clifton L. Hall, Katherine Hall, Winnie Mooney, Donald Neville, Louis Nicholas, A. C. Norris, Anna Loe Russell, H. C. Sipe, Robert Polk Thomson, Russell Whitaker, Scott S. Withrow, Theodore Woodward, L. J. Wrightsman.

Children's Literature

BELTING, NATALIA MAREE. *Elves and Ellefold*. Holt, Rinehart, 1961. 94p. \$3.00.

Folklorist Natalia M. Belting, known for her previous books *Cat Tales* and *The Moon is a Crystal Ball*, has gathered fifteen tales about Little People from all over the world and re-told them with distinctive national flavor. The Little People are known by many names—ellefold, korrigans, wagoningo, leprechauns and are inhabitants of many nations—Italy, Africa, Wales, North America, British Isles, Ireland, Turkey, Polynesia, Scandinavia, Iceland, and Brittany. The tales are enhanced by the drawings of Gordon Laite.

BENNETT, RAINEY. *After the Sun Goes Down*. World Pub., 1961. unpag. \$3.00.

This is the delightful story of three owls and what happened to them during one of their wakeful nights when they found a red ribbon belonging to a teddy bear. The illustrations are as gay as they are beautiful. Ages 4-8.

BIALK, ELISA. *Tizz on a Pack Trip*. Children's Press, 1961. 94p. \$2.50.

Tizz is a Palomino pony and belongs to Don and Tracy Hill, but when Don has a chance to go on an unusual pack trip to

Glacier Park, Tracy insists that he take the pony and go. The smallest and the youngest of the campers have a chance to prove how sturdy they are as many unexpected things come up, including an avalanche and an accident, and middle elementary readers will be proud of them. Excellent format; large clear type and interesting line drawings.

BODEN, HILDA. *Faraway Farm*. McKay, 1961. 135 p. \$2.95.

Mrs. Weatherby and her four children, one boy a polio victim, have a difficult time making ends meet in London. When a greatuncle dies leaving them a faraway farm in Scotland they find adventure, hard work and satisfaction in making adjustments. This is good reading for upper graders.

BOLTON, CAROLE. *The Callahan Girls*. Morrow, 1961. 224p. \$2.95.

Rivalry between two sisters makes the plot for this story. Family life in a small apartment in New York presents many problems to Kate, but none more important than losing one date after another to beautiful blue eyed Peggy. The satisfactory outcome will please junior high school girls.

BRANLEY, FRANKLIN MANSFIELD. *A Book of Planets for You*. Crowell, 1961. unpag. \$3.50.

This book is designed for late primary grades. It is both well written and ably illustrated.

BROCK, EMMA LILLIAN. *The Plaid Cow*. Knopf, 1961. 80p. \$2.50.

Five stories of children, each with a rich background of national custom brought from different foreign lands to the one state of Minnesota. The stories are for intermediate grade reading, and are of interest to both boys and girls. These are wonderful samples of the fine people and traditions that have made America great.

BROWN, MARGARET WISE. *Four Fur Feet*. Young Scott, 1961. unpub. \$3.00.

Four Fur Feet is from a collection of Margaret Wise Brown's unpublished poetry. Remy Charlip wanted to do this poem as a picture book when he first saw the collection. But it was not until his third working dummy that he conceived the present brilliant form for the book. Margaret Wise Brown admirers will want to add this book to their collection.

CALHOUN, MARY. *The Nine Lives of Homer C. Cat*. Morrow, 1961. unpub. \$2.75.

Homer C. Cat was so proud that he was careless with eight of his nine lives. Children about 4 to 6 or 7 will be delighted to find that Homer finally learned his lesson, and that his ninth life was long, useful and happy.

CARTER, ERNEST. *Buses of the World*. Roy, 1961. 143p. \$3.75.

This is an interesting account of the development of the motor bus from the early styles to those being used today, well illustrated by many photographs and charts. Special explanation of various motors and engines. The last chapter takes a look at the future. The writing is interesting and suited to high school reading.

COMMANGER, HENRY STEELE. *The Great Constitution*. Bobbs-Merrill, 1961. 128p. \$3.50.

The third of a series of books about great documents which have formed the basis of our American democracy, Commanger's newest book for the young is a delightful commentary on the birth of the Great Constitution. The task of "making" a notion by a handful of enlightened federal heroes is the heart of this well-written book.

COMMANGER, HENRY STEELE. *The Great Proclamation*. Bobbs-Merrill, 1960. 112p. \$2.95.

This story follows Commanger's *The Great Declaration* and proves again the punch of a scholar who can use his knowledge to write a lively and exciting book for the young reader.

COOMBS, CHARLES. *Bush Flying in Alaska*. Morrow, 1961. 93p. \$2.95.

The bush pilot is a resourceful man. Read how these men contributed to the development of Alaska. This book will interest children in the 10-14 age group.

DAVIS, LAVINIA R. *Clown Dog*. Doubleday, 1961. 58p. \$2.75.

Joey and his dog, Clown Dog, moved from his home on the beach to a new home inland and in the country. Getting acquainted in the country was not easy, but Clown Dog solved the problems by finding a fawn in the woods. The story is appealing for lower grades: about third grade reading level.

DAVIS, LAVINIA. *Island City*. Doubleday, 1961. 255p. \$2.95.

Here are five engaging and carefully authenticated episodes from the early history of New York City, beginning with an intriguing adventure of a Dutch girl and an English Quaker boy in 1600, and the four following dramas are related to the descendants of these two—the last episode occurring in 1870. This method of linking historical events gives a fine, if somewhat complicated continuity. Recommended for upper elementary reading.

DEANGELI, MARGUERITE. *The Old Testament*. Doubleday, 1960. unpub. \$6.95.

Here are thoughtful selections from the King James Version of the Old Testament, illustrated and newly arranged in meaningful sequence by one of America's foremost author-artists in the field of children's books. From the decorative initial that begins the first line of Genesis to the glowing color and sparkling detail of each full-color spread, Marguerite deAngeli's Old Testament provides a rich experience for every reader.

DEBRUNHOFF, LAURENT. *Serafina the Gifarre*. World Pub., 1961. unp. \$3.00.

Laurent deBrunhoff is well known in this country for his books, *Babar's Picnic* and *Babar's Cousin*, the most recent titles in the famous series originated by his father. Now in *Serafina*, he introduces an engaging new set of characters whose zestful preparations for Grandmother's birthday party will delight and charm all young readers.

DENZER, ANN WISEMAN. *Tony's Flower*. Vanguard, 1961. unp. \$2.95.

This charmingly told story is of an Italian boy living in sight of a grassy park, restricted for certain children. Tony had a beautiful lily, and when a flower was needed for the park he donated it, and then had many friends. A delightful story for children in the kindergarten or lower grades.

DE LA CROIX, ROBERT. *Mysteries of the Islands*. John Day, 1961. 187p. \$3.50.

Accounts of some of the strange reports that come in regard to islands that seem to disappear sometimes, and of the adventures of men on islands all over the seven seas. There is wonderful material for the imaginative young people who want to try their hand at writing, or just for imaginative children. This book is for upper grades of junior high school reading.

DE LA MARE, WALTER. *A Penny a Day*. Knopf, 1960. 209p. \$3.00.

"Only the rarest kind of best in anything can be good enough for the young." So wrote Walter de la Mare to explain his guiding principle through all the writing he has done for children. Here, in this volume, are many of his favorite stories, some long out of print, all of them remembered and cherished—the stories the author told his own family, stories of strange spells cast and bargains made, of adventures rare and magical.

DENNIS, MORGAN. *Kitten on the Keys*. Viking, 1961. 43p. \$2.25.

Tommy picked up a lonely, hungry kitten on the docks of one of the Florida Keys. He named it Rusty. Finally Tommy, with Rusty's help finds a block of silver worth \$491.64. The story stops right there, but

most readers 7 to 9 years old will be able to go right on, and on.

DE REGNIERS, BEATRICE. *The Little Book*. Walck, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

The Little Book tells for the delight of the pre-school child what happens when a little girl goes for a walk. She meets a cow that says Moo and a pig that says Oink and many others, too. At last she hears someone say Hi and that is best of all. Mrs. de Regniers is author of twelve other books for children but this is the first she has also illustrated.

DHOTRE, DAMOO. *Wild Animal Man*. Little, Brown, 1961. 155p. \$3.50.

All the excitement, challenge, and danger inherent in training wild animals to perform are here in this story of a skinny little boy who ran away from his home in India to join his uncle's circus and later become one of the world's greatest animal trainers. This book will be enjoyed by readers from age 12 up.

DOBLER, LAVINIA. *Cyrus McCormick*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 199p. \$2.25. Childhood of Great Americans series.

The life story of Cyrus McCormick and his reaper is told for intermediate grade children. Interest is well maintained, and the significance of the reaper is well presented. This is a real aid for the vitalized teaching of the social studies.

DONOVAN, JOHN. *Little Orange Book*. Morrow, 1961. unp. \$2.00.

In this little orange book a very young boy tells about another little orange book that is the story of two fat rabbits and wolf named Hooper. This miniature story within a story has an unusual combination of simplicity and humor that is just right for very young readers.

DOW, KATHARINE. *My Time of Year*. Walck, 1961. unp. \$2.25.

"Where I live sometimes it's hot and sometimes it's cold and sometimes it's in between. That's what my book is about—what it's like and the things I do in my time of year." This is Katharine Dow's introduction to her charmingly simple book which will fascinate three-to-five-year-olds.

DOWNEY, GLANVILLE. *Belisarios*. Dutton, 1960. 192p. \$3.00.

A short biography of the early career of a farm boy turned general, who at the age of twenty-two heads the Roman Army of Justinian in its seventh century victory over the Persian invaders of Syria and the reconquering of North Africa from the Vandals. This book will appeal to the teenage reader.

DREIFUS, MIRIAM. *Timmy Gets His Horse*. Putnam, 1961. unp. \$2.19.

How Timmy convinced his parents that seven isn't too young to feed and water and ride a horse makes a warmly satisfying story. From the point of view of the six- and seven-year olds, another pleasing thing about the book is the fact that they can read it by themselves.

DROWNE, TATIANA. *I Am From Siam*. Pantheon, 1961. unp. \$3.00.

Legend, history, and traditions are highlighted in this story of Thailand and her singular breed of Siamese cats.

DUNHAM, MONTREW. *Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr.* Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 199p. \$2.25. Childhood of Great American series.

This well told story of the boyhood and distinguished career of this great man is a distinct contribution to the better teaching of the social studies in the elementary school. Interest is well maintained, and children will be led to a better understanding of law as a needed part of our American way of life.

DUVOISIN, ROGER. *Happy Hunter*. Lothrop, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

One of the most beautiful of all the Duvoisin picture books. Exciting full page drawings throughout, and a brief text which tells about a hunter who did not really hunt, and what happened then. This book is recommended.

DUVOISIN, ROGER. *Veronica*. Knopf, 1961. unp. \$2.95.

Like other books by Duvoisin, *Veronica* will stretch the imagination. Assuming that the imagination of children aged 4 to 8 do need stretching, this is an interesting,

pleasurable way of doing it. Veronica is a hippopotamus, and a ham. The results are startling.

EBERSTADT, ISABEL AND FREDERICK. *What Is for My Birthday*. Little, Brown, 1961. 31p. \$2.75.

Nell, on her sixth birthday, was in bed with a cold, so it was not like a birthday at all. Then came surprises, surprises! Very young readers will love finding out why this became the best birthday ever for Nell. Ages 4-6.

EDMONDS, I. G. *Ooka the Wise*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 95p. \$3.25.

I. G. Edmonds introduces to American youngsters, for the first time, one of Japan's most beloved folk figures—Ooka the Wise, a judge in the days of old Japan whose motto was, "Punish wickedness and reward virtue." Seventeen tales of Ooka's ways of meting out justice are included in this collection, all with illustrations by Sanae Yamazaki.

ELKIN, BENJAMIN. *The Man who Walked Around the World*. Children's Press, 1961. 29p. \$2.50.

This is a fascinating retelling of the hilarious story of the attempts of villagers to fence in the Boola bird and of the courageous journey of the mayor to get help from the big city. Pictures and story will delight children aged 3 to 8, and before they are through the first grade most children can read it themselves.

ELMER, IRENE. *Benjamin*. Abingdon, 1961. 47p. \$1.75.

Benjamin was a lovable pony, and all the children loved him. But he wanted to be a unicorn. Then some surprising magic comes along and he is a unicorn. Then everybody was afraid of him and he was miserable, until some more magic comes and he is a pony again. This story may help children about 5 to 8 to be happy as they are.

ELWELL, F. R. *Atoms and Energy*. Criterion, 1961. 144p. \$3.50.

Able junior high school students will appreciate the wide range of topics included in the text. The book is quite readable.

EMBERLEY, ED. *Wing on a Flea*. Little, Brown, 1961. 47p. \$2.95.

This is a book about shapes: triangles, rectangles, circles, all three, you'll know which is which if you just look and see. Ed Emberley has presented clearly and interestingly a basic concept of design to show children that if they really use their eyes there is so much they can see. A triangle is, for instance, a finny fish tail, an ice-cream cone, a harpoon for a whale, even a nose on a cat.

ENGLEBERT, IRENE BUTLER. *Animals that Clothe Us*. Sterling, 1961. 48p. \$2.25.

This small book, not quite 50 pages, contains much information about the animal products from which we make clothes. Feathers, furs, wool, silk and so on, are given a brief but interesting account suited to the elementary reader. Well illustrated with black and white drawings. Sturdy, attractive format. The book is recommended.

EVANS, EVA. *That Lucky Mrs. Plucky*. McKay, 1961. 61p. \$2.75.

Children of seven to ten will find this story of Mrs. Plucky and how she got her spring cleaning done in spite of difficulties very amusing. They will also enjoy Jo Ann Stover's humorous pictures.

EVANS, I. O. *Rocks and Fossils*. Roy, 1961. 144p. \$3.75.

The story of geological formations in Britain quite ably and interestingly told by an articulate geologist. This book would appeal to the upper secondary school level.

EWING, JULIANA. *Jan of the Windmill*. Walck, 1960. 235p. \$3.50.

Juliana Horatia Ewing's tale of Jan is a children's classic. First published in 1872, the story has won a special place in the memories of its countless readers. Here are the elements of storytelling which have always delighted children—memorable characterizations, an exciting narrative, suspense, humor, pathos and charm. The woodcuts from the original edition help recreate the authentic atmosphere of 19th century England.

FARJEON, ELEANOR. *Italian Peepshow*. Walck, 1960. 96p. \$2.75.

Here are eleven tales of humorous realism and poetic fancy—all about the sunny land of Italy, with its orange trees, its carnivals, and its strange food. All the tales are delightfully told by the well-known and gifted storyteller, Eleanor Farjeon. The illustrations by Ardizzone are in the festive spirit of the text.

FARJEON, ELEANOR. *New Book of Days*. Walck, 1961. 400p. \$4.50.

For every day of the year Eleanor Farjeon provides in *The New Book of Days* a scrap of fun or fancy, poetry or nonsense, fact or fable. This is a varied and charming collection, a miscellany possessing appeal for all ages.

FAULKNER, NANCY. *The Sacred Jewel*. Doubleday, 1961. 213p. \$2.95.

The setting for this romantic adventure story is England in the time of the Druids. There is the daughter of a Druid priest, two students in the school of the bards, and the disabled son of the priest. All wait for midsummer night when one of them must die for the theft of the sacred jewel. There is superstition, greed, revenge, treachery, faith, loyalty, love and suspense.

FENNER, PHYLLIA. *Over There. Morrow*, 1961. 191p. \$3.00.

This popular reviewer has selected ten stories of World War I background, light enough to interest junior high school readers, yet tragic enough to picture the grave events of that time. This period has been a neglected area as to fiction in our experience, and we welcome this collection as choice material to meet this need.

FERN, EUGENE. *Most Frightened Hero*. Coward McCann, 1961. unp. \$3.25.

Duncan Campbell was afraid to climb trees or walk on narrow fenceraills or leap from rock to rock like a mountain goat. Because he was afraid, all the children laughed at him. But Duncan was determined not to be frightened anymore. He had to learn to climb trees and leap from rock to rock. How he did makes a thrilling climax to this story and one which six-to-nine-year olds will enjoy.

FLEMING, ALICE. *Son of Liberty*. St. Martin's Press, 1961. 182p. \$3.50.

Upper elementary readers, interested in United States history will enjoy the experiences of two twelve-year-old boys during the beginning battles of the Revolutionary War. It is unusual that boys of this age could actually take part in the activities on a battlefield, but as this story is related it becomes a natural happening. Beautiful black and white drawings; actual detail maps add much interest to the young reader.

FLEMING, ELIZABETH P. *The Spell on the Stones*. Westminster, 1961. 160p. \$2.95.

The setting is in Ireland and David Trent from America is spending his summer on his grandmother's farm. He helps one of the neighbors dig into a cairn, and they have interesting and assorting mishaps, attributed to a "spell" by many of the superstitious neighbors. An interesting story with a real Irish flavor for children 8 to 12.

FLETCHER, HELEN JILL. *For Junior Doctors Only*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 96p. \$2.95.

This book is written for young readers' help in understanding how our body works. It is written in an interesting way and will provide the person with factual material about the body.

The Fox Went Out on a Chilly Night. Doubleday, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.95.

The old song is authentic, and the tune is in the back of the book. The illustrations are delightfully wonderful. Book and song are probably most suitable for children about 5 to 9.

FRANCK, FREDERICK. *My Friend in Africa*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1960. 94p. \$2.95.

Dr. Franck, a Dutch-born dentist-artist now living in New York, says of *My Friend in Africa*: "The book was written in order to create a better understanding of the essential humanity of the African child, whose aspirations are not different from that of children elsewhere as soon as the child is touched by education." Moving in the background of the story, and giving it motivation, is the saintlike figure of Albert Sweitzer.

FRANCOISE. *The Big Rain*. Scribners, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.95.

This is another Jean-Marie book by this talented French artist. There is the rain, the rising water, the saving of the animals, the living on the second floor, the rescue, the going down of the flood, and the clean-up. This gay picture book is enchanting for pre-school and first grade children.

FRANK, JOSETTE. *Poems To Read to the Very Young*. Random House, 1961. unpaginated. \$1.

The very young will love the large, colorful pictures in this book and the poems included are all favorites of small children. Parents and teachers looking for a book "just right" for the introduction of poetry will find this book an excellent one.

FRANK, JOSETTE. *Your Child's Reading Today*. Doubleday, 1961. 391p. \$3.95.

Newly revised and updated, this authoritative evaluation of children's reading offers help to the parent who wants to guide her child's reading and broaden her child's interests through books.

FREEMAN, IRA M. *All About Sound and Ultrasonics*. Random House, 1961. 141p. \$1.95.

A well-written book in the tradition of a popular series for ages 12 to 15.

GANNETT, RUTH STILES. *Katie and the Sad Noise*. Random House, 1961. unpaginated. \$1.95.

Shortly before Christmas Katie dreams about sad noises. The dream is so real that she goes looking for it for two days after school. Then on Saturday she goes again just after a snow. Her father and teacher, and even the policeman go with her following tracks in the snow. Finally the ragman's pony pushes Katie into the woods where she finds a mother dog and four puppies. For tender hearted children to read in the latter part of the first grade.

GARELICK, MAY. *Where Does the Butterfly Go When It Rains*. Young Scott, 1961. unpaginated. \$3.00.

This is a book to strengthen a child's

sense of wonder. A young child wonders where the animals and insects go when it rains. What he knows he can answer for himself; what he doesn't know, he questions. But this book goes beyond questions and answers. Playfully and poetically it explores the rich realm of speculation, "without which" ■ Charles Darwin said, "there is no original observation." The beautiful illustrations of ■ daily world by Leonard Weisgard strengthen the sense of wonder.

GARNETT, EVE. *Family from One End Street*. Vanguard, 1960. 208p. \$3.50.

Here is an English family that, large as it may be, you'll have to take to your heart. Their doings are sometimes exciting and sometimes funny, but invariably entertaining. Awarded the Carnegie Medal in England ■ the best children's book of the year, *The Family from One End Street* has gained in America as many enthusiastic friends as it has abroad.

GEE, MAURINE H. *Jeff and the River*. Morrow, 1961. 92p. \$2.75.

This is ■ fishing story, of salmon fishing near the mouth of a river on the East coast. This is real danger, and there are big fish. Decidedly ■ story for fishing enthusiasts, particularly those in the intermediate and upper grades.

GEIFJERSTAM, BRITA. *Mia Pia*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 89p. \$2.95.

Mia-Pia, ■ little Swedish girl, had ■ delightful imagination and liked to make up her own songs. She had a loving family and the activities of the group are described in a simply charming story that will please very young children.

GEISEL, THEODOR. *Sneetches and Other Stories*. Random House, 1961. unpag. \$2.95.

These are four of his very best, which are guaranteed to please Dr. Seuss fans of all ages.

GENDRON, VAL. *The Dragon Tree*. Longman's, Green, 1961. 214p. \$3.95.

Alexander von Humboldt is interpreted for the non-technical reader. Despite its brevity and simple language, the work gives

some insight into the amazing versatility of the Universal Man whose original contributions are claimed by half-a-dozen fields. Good reading for the adventurous student.

GIDAL, SONIA. *My Village in Switzerland*. Pantheon, 1961. 81p. \$3.50.

Another beautiful study of Switzerland for elementary readers. Interesting points have been covered, accompanied by unusually clear well chosen photographs. A fine contribution to all collections for children. This book is recommended.

GLASER, MILTON AND SHIRLEY. *If Apples Had Teeth*. Knopf, 1960. unpag. \$2.75.

Zany ■ they come is this book of IFS. If pickles were tickled, what would happen? They would never be sour! If trees were pink, what would happen? They would be evergreens! Zany to be sure, but colorful, gay, and utterly refreshing. The color illustrations on each page are equally as funny and improbable as the IFS.

GOLL, REINHOLD W. *The Visitors from Planet Veta*. Westminster, 1961. 116p. \$2.95.

Though lacking the light touch which would make it entirely pleasing to this reviewer, this story will probably find favor with youngsters preoccupied with science fiction. Children from planet Veta spend their vacation with two earth children. Glide rays, space ships, and magic pass words are all part of the fun.

GOTTLIEB, SUZAE. *What Is Red?* Lothrop, 1961. unpag. \$2.95.

A ten-page picture book, presenting a study of color for beginning learners, in a very attractive way. The page illustrations are beautiful and the simple line text presents an imaginative thought which can easily lead into detailed discussion. This book is recommended.

GOUGH, CATHERINE. *Boyhoods of Great Composers*. Walck, 1960. 53p. \$2.50.

Catherine Gough tells the story of the boyhoods of six great musicians—of Handel, who hid in the loft at night to practice his music; Mozart, who gave his first public

concert at six; Schubert, ■ royal choirboy of Austria; Mendelssohn, ■ wealthy young boy of Berlin; Grieg, who drew his music from the sea and mountains of his beloved Norway; and Elgar, who taught himself to play the instruments in his father's music shop. The boyhoods are presented in a clear and spirited manner and illustrations picture important as well ■■ humorous events in the lives of the musicians. Ages 7-11.

GOVAN, CHRISTINE NOBLE AND WEST, EMMY. *Mystery at Rock City*. Sterling, 1961. 154p. \$2.50.

The "Lookout" children in this story get as mixed up and come out as well ■■ in the other stories of the series. The setting is in Rock City on top of Lookout Mountain. There are figurines that seem to travel by themselves, FBI men, jewel smugglers, and what have you. Exciting reading for grades 3-6.

GRAVES, ROBERT. *Greek Gods and Heroes*. Doubleday, 1960. 160p. \$2.95.

The legends of long-ago Greece that have inspired centuries of great art and literature are retold here by a famous poet, novelist, and classicist of today. As a teen-ager's introduction to mythology or ■ fresh approach for an expert, *Greek Gods and Heroes* provides an equally fascinating and entertaining experience.

GRAVES, ROBERT. *The Penny Fiddle*. Doubleday, 1961. 62p. \$2.50.

One of England's finest poets, Robert Graves has selected twenty-three of his best poems for and about children for this book. Father of eight himself, Mr. Graves has an intimate knowledge of his subject. Edward Ardizzone's charmingly whimsical drawings capture the mixed old-and-new-world spirit of the poems.

GREEN, MARY MCBURNEY. *Everybody Eats*. Young Scott, 1961. unpag. \$2.00.

The easy-to-read book describes for very young readers the eating habits of the familiar animals and arrives at the important generalization that, although diets may vary, everybody eats. This is a new edition of ■■ already popular "concept" book.

GREEN, MARY MCBURNEY. *Every-*

body Has a House. Young Scott, 1961. unpag. \$2.

This easy-to-read book develops for the very young the concept that although each shelter is different, everybody has ■ house. The cow has ■ barn; the rabbit, ■ burrow; the turkey, ■ pen; the bird, a nest. This is a new edition of an already popular book.

GREEN, MARY MCBURNEY. *Is It Hard? Is It Easy?* Young Scott, 1960. unpag. \$2.75.

In simple, easy-to-read, rhythmic pattern, Mary McBurney Green encourages young readers to begin to evaluate themselves and to become aware of the differences that exist in all people. The concept that what is easy for one may be hard for another is developed. Len Geitelman's photographs heighten this concept.

GREEN, R. L. *Tales of Make Believe*. Dutton, 1961. 235p. \$3.25.

Roger Green, well-known authority on reading for the young, has compiled this volume specially for the Children's Illustrated Classics from the stories of Dickens, Anstey, Molesworth, Hardy, Lucas, Kipling, Nesbitt, Canfield, Chalmers, and Crompton. This worthy addition to the series will be welcomed by librarians and young people alike.

GREEN, ROBERT JAMES. *Patriot Silver*. Martin's Press, 1961. 183p. \$3.50.

Dick Carr at the age of 15 becomes one of Marion's men in the fighting in South Carolina during the later years of the Revolution. He goes on ■ long and dangerous mission for Marion to St. Augustine, is captured by Indians, and has other thrilling adventures in completing the mission successfully. A stirring story of courage and adventure for upper grade or junior high school readers.

GREEN, CARLA. *Baseball Player*. Children's Press, 1961. unpag. \$2.00.

Primary readers will welcome this new title to the already popular series, which they read and reread. We ■■ grateful for the contribution this author has made to the first and second grade collections. And, we are glad to see that the new titles follow the same pattern in format, large clear type

and full page illustration. This book is recommended.

HAHN, LOTTE. *Unicorn Who Wanted To Be Seen*. Warne, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

In this story, a vision of a unicorn inspires an old man, who had spent his life making bronze sculptures, to create his masterpiece when he thought himself too old to make anything new. Author and artist have cooperated perfectly in recreating a small town in Germany in the middle ages as the background of this story.

HAYS, WILMA PITCHFORD. *Abe Lincoln's Birthday*. Coward McCann, 1961. 64p. \$2.68.

This is the story of just one day in Abe Lincoln's life—his twelfth birthday. Already he possessed the qualities which were later to mark him for greatness. Although this is a fictional treatment, it is rich with true detail of Abe's boyhood. The author has drawn from historical sources, as well as from stories of the Illinois region handed down by her grandmother.

HAYS, WILMA PITCHFORD. *Little Lone Coyote*. Little, Brown, 1961. 34p. \$2.75.

How Fred found a coyote cub and kept him for a pet and how as the cub grew older Fred was forced to measure his love for his pet with the coyote's need to be himself makes an appealing story for children ages 6-8.

HEADLEY, ELIZABETH. *A Touch of Magic*. Westminster, 1961. 189p. \$2.95.

This is an adventure romance, partially based on fact, of three girls with different backgrounds. The setting is in Philadelphia during the Revolutionary War. Like other books by Betty Cavanna, this is recommended for the young teen-age girl. The plot is realistic, fast moving, and well developed.

HENRY, MARGUERITE. *Gaundezie: Pride of the Palio*. Rand McNally, 1960. 235p. \$3.95.

Each summer, in the ancient hill town of Siena, Italy, there erupts one of the most extraordinary, exciting, and dangerous horse

races in the world—the Palio. This magnificent book is a true story of the Palio—a thrilling, heart-stirring tale of a boy and a beautiful half-Arabian mare who won undying fame. All the rich pageantry and medieval splendor that surround this race of Siena are captured in the text and in Lynd Ward's glowing illustrations.

HODGES, ELIZABETH. *Story of Glass*. Sterling, 1961. 47 p. \$2.50.

This is a helpful introduction to glass making and the uses of glass. It is designed for teen-agers and others interested in glass.

HOFFMAN, FELIZ. *Rapunzel*. Harcourt, Brace, 1961. unp. \$3.75.

This entrancing picture book follows closely the text of the fairy tale as told by Grimm, with some delightful variations. This is a book children and adults who love children will treasure.

HOGAN, INEZ. *Little Lost Bear*. Dutton, 1960. unp. \$2.50.

Rescued by Mother Bear, Cubby is told to stay safe at home in the hollow tree. There he finds that his tree is just like an apartment house. Beginning with the chipmunk who lives under the roots of the tree, the little bear meets the raccoon, the squirrel, the owl, and finally the chickadee who lives in a nest on the top. They have fun until a wolf appears. Inez Hogan in this story for the very young has proved her skill at entertaining little people while guiding them in their first steps toward self-reliance.

HOGAN, BERNICE. *Now I Lay Me Down To Wonder*. . . Abingdon, 1961. unp. \$1.25.

This book of simple expressions of wonder and delight in everyday things is as charming as its title. Those looking for a distinctively different book of prayers for very young children will welcome this publication for children ages 3-7.

HOLLAND, JOYCE. *Timmy the Timid Turtle*. Dennison, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

Timmy becomes so concerned about a nest of quail and the missing mother quail that he loses his timidity. In helping the nestlings he gets many of the things he desired for himself. The tale and the moral

are for children about 3 to 6, and the illustrations by Spiegel enhance the tale.

HOLLANDER, JOHN AND BLOOM, HAROLD. *Wind and the Rain*. Doubleday, 1961. 264p. \$3.50.

Young people of high school age have in recent years had few anthologies of poetry made expressly for them. Therefore, this collection is especially welcome. It is organized according to the seasons of the year and their symbolic overtones. All types of poetry and all moods are represented. The selections range from the fourteenth century to the present.

HOMES, MARGORIE. *Follow Your Dream*. Westminster, 1961. 188p. \$2.95.

Tracy Temple loved animals even as a child. This explains her venture into the male world of a veterinarian. Boys and animals were equally endearing to Tracy until she met Whit, young vet-to-be, assisting in the animal hospital where she takes a summer job. A good career story with a touch of romance.

HONERT, DORRY VAN DEN. *Demi the Baby Sitter*. Morrow, 1961. unpag. \$2.75.

Demi didn't like a lot of things, from cats and other dogs, to mail-men. Especially this French poodle didn't like the baby that pulled his tail and was generally disturbing. How he got credit he did not deserve for baby sitting, and then came to think it wasn't so bad after all, will delight children about 4 to 6.

HORNBLOW, LEONORA. *Cleopatra of Egypt*. Random House, 1961. 180p. \$1.95.

Leonora Hornblow has succeeded admirably in giving a reasonably accurate historical account of the life of Cleopatra, and at the same time surrounding her with the glamour and romance with which the name of Cleopatra has been associated throughout the years. Good reading for high school age.

HOWE, JANET ROGERS. *Trinket*. Westminster, 1961. 157p. \$2.95.

The pony, Trinket, changes hands half a

dozen times, but each time happily, bringing joy to the pony and pleasure to the children involved. She learns many tricks and is a favorite with all the children on the street, and then a greater adventure comes to her, as she learns to perform with a circus group. Third and fourth grade readers will be interested to see how it all ends.

HOYT, EDWIN P. *Whirlybirds*. Doubleday, 1961. 57p. \$2.95.

Supplemental reading for intermediates. Appeals to children through illustrations, human interest story, and an accurate description.

HUNT, LAWRENCE J. *Mystery in Rainbow Valley*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 180p. \$2.95.

When Clint returned from college he found two logging companies in a virtual feud, and a series of mysterious forest fires. In finding the cause of the fires and reconciling the antagonistic companies Clint has about as many tense situations and narrow escapes as can well be packed into 180 pages. Light reading for high school boys and tom-boys.

HURT, FRED. *Mr. Twink and the Jungle Garden*. Roy 1961. 122p. \$2.50.

Mr. Twink is a black cat. Boffer the police dog helps with his bumbling courage. Together with other animals and without help from "them," (humans) they solve the mystery of the disappearance of some poultry and remedy the situation in the jungle garden. This intriguing fantasy of animal intelligence is suitable reading for about the same ages and kinds of persons who like *The Wind in the Willows*.

HYMES, LUCIA AND JAMES. *Hooray for Chocolate*. Young Scott, 1960. 47p. \$2.50.

These light-hearted verses are strictly for children. They are about the things children are concerned about: homework, food, pets, spankings, and TV. And, the authors are always on the side of the children. The illustrations are as light-hearted as the verses.

IPCAR, DAHLOV. *Stripes and Spots*. Doubleday, 1961. unpag. \$2.50.

A beautiful, colorful picture book dealing

with animal life in the jungle, in a happy sort of way. Definitely a good primary approach with the emphasis on family life and the acceptance of natural living conditions for all. The text is a bit obscure except for the experienced reader, but the vivid full page pictures will delight all of the picture-book set.

JACKSON, SALLY. *Littlest Star*. Reilly & Lee, 1961. 31p. \$2.75.

This is the story of Susie—as lovable ■ little girl as ever beguiled a teacher or delighted her proud father on the day his gosling turned into ■ swan. This book is one which any child just beginning to read can really read alone.

JAGENDORF, M. A.; BOGGS, R. *King of the Mountains*. Vanguard, 1961. 310p. \$4.95.

This extensive collection of more than fifty stories from all the countries of South America opens ■ fresh enjoyment and appreciation of our New World neighbors. This is truly a rich volume of sense and nonsense, of old wisdom and new understanding, of laughter and fun.

JENNISON, KEITH. *From This to That*. McKay, 1961. unp. \$2.95.

This book introduces the idea that almost everything becomes something else: kittens become cats, seeds become flowers, caterpillars become butterflies, wheat becomes bread, spruce trees become books. The text, with its vivid illustrations, will stimulate children to inquire into and enjoy further the world of wonderful happenings where everything changes from this to that.

JOHNSON, ALLAN L. *Hot-Rod Reporter*. Sloan and Pearce, 1961. 152p. \$2.95.

As the title indicates, this is ■ fast moving story dealing with a high school boy whose grades are in ■ bad way, and who, caught in the lure of hot rodding and day dreaming, is about to forfeit plans for a good future. How he pulls out and establishes himself in the respect of his family and friends will make exciting reading for the junior high school group.

JUSTUS, MAY. *Winds A'Blowing*. Westminster, 1961. 79p. \$2.50.

Here are 64 delightful verses young children will like to hear and read. May Justus, who has lived all her life in the mountain regions of eastern Tennessee, has captured in these verses the charm of mountain life and the friendliness of mountain folk. Parents and teachers will want to share these verses with young children.

KAY, HELEN. *Abe Lincoln's Hobby*. Reilly & Lee, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

There is a legend about Abe Lincoln that he was so funny he could make ■ cat laugh. Helen Kay has built her story around Lincoln's love of cats weaving together incidents in his life involving cats. This book is good for ages 6-10.

KING, MARTHA BENNETT. *Snow Queen*. Rand McNally, 1961. 35p. \$1.50.

This is a new telling of the famous story of Hans Christian Andersen. And in the back of the book is a new Slottie toy designed to make the story come alive for boys and girls as they put it together.

KLAPERMAN, LIBBY M. *The Scholar Fighter*. Farrar, Straus ■ Cudahy, 1961. 178p. \$2.95.

Saadia ben Joseph was one of the heroes of the Jewish dispersion, following the destruction of the Temple by the Romans. Saadia lived in the 8th century, A.D. His story is one of integrity and spiritual genius of which Gentiles as well as Jews should be proud. This is good literature for teen-age boys and girls.

KONKLE, JANET. *The Sea Cart*. Westminster, 1961. 45p. \$2.00.

Jean Louis wanted to earn money from the tourist trade in his native Gaspé. His boat was an object of ridicule until with it he rescued a marooned artist. Then all the tourists wanted to ride in the "Sea Cart" and Jean Louis could earn the money he needed to help his family.

LADD, ELIZABETH. *Meg of Heron's Neck*. Morrow, 1961. 191p. \$2.75.

Meg is an orphan, and her life is a little rugged as she lives with her half-brother on his little boat as he tries to make their living one way or another around ■ harbor on

the coast of Maine. Her rebellion can easily be understood when her uncle decides that she must come and live at his farm where she can have a decent home life with schooling and such. This book is recommended for middle elementary children.

LAMBERT, ELOISE; PEI, MARIO. *Our Names*. Lothrop, 1960. 191p. \$3.00.

This new book by the authors of *The Book of Place Names* gives you all sorts of fascinating facts and information about one of your most priceless possessions—your own name.

LANG, ANDREW. *The Red Fairy Book*. Looking Glass Library, 1960. 488p. \$1.50.

Collected here are many of the best-known and most beloved fairy tales for children, including such favorites as *Rapunzel* and *The Six Sillies*. This is the only complete edition of *The Red Fairy Book* now in print in America. Reisie Lonette has done the illustrations especially for the Looking Glass Library.

LAPPA, KATHERINE. *Rob and the Robins*. Putnam, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.19.

This is a gay story that boys and girls can enjoy reading all by themselves if they have finished first grade. Being a *See and Read Storybook* the vocabulary includes only those words, with a few listed exceptions, that children are taught to read in the first grade. This story should appeal to children six to eight.

LASEK, M. *This Is Edinburgh*. Macmillan, 1961. 60p. \$3.00.

In this happy and exciting guide to Scotland's great capital. M. Lasek has captured the very spirit, the pride and grandeur of one of the noblest places on earth. All the famous landmarks of this festival city are pictured here. It is not only children who will find enchantment in this lovely book.

LASEK, M. *This Is New York*. Macmillan, 1960. 50p. \$4.00.

M. Lasek's impressions of the great cities of the world are recorded in words and pictures with a loving eye and a gay sense of fun. He is impressed with the bigness of New York—the big building, the big cars, the big Sunday papers, even the big traffic

jams. Here is the Staten Island Ferry, the Statue of Liberty, Greenwich Village, Times Square, Rockefeller Center, Harlem, Chinatown, Central Park, the brass, the beauty, the magic of New York City.

LATTIMORE, ELEANOR. *Cousin Melinda*. Morrow, 1961. 124p. \$2.75.

Cousin Melinda goes to visit the Carraway family who live in a bayou outside New Orleans and, her cousin hopes, will become a "best friend" to them there. The Carraways are a large, happy, untidy family whose way of life does not fit with Melinda's background, and it seems for a time that she will not fit in. But all problems are solved at last, and there is a nice message about tolerance for third and fourth grade girls.

LEACH, MARIA. *Noodles, Nitwits, and Num-Skulls*. World, 1961. 96p. \$2.95.

Magnificent, and with excellent illustrations! The stories, the rhymes, and the riddles are all silly or stupid, yet they are classics that have come down through the ages. Few volumes that we have seen recently are more apt to hold the attention of an eight to ten year old boy.

LEHRMAN, ROBERT L. *Long Road to Man*. Basic Books, 1961. 192p. \$3.95.

This book is an interesting, very readable story of animal evaluation, written by a high school science teacher for high school students.

LENARD, ALEXANDER. *Winnie Ille Pu*. Dutton, 1960. 120p. \$3.00.

Now, of all things, we have in this book, a Latin version of A. A. Milne's children's classic, *Winnie the Pooh*. And, as a matter of record, this Latin version was among the best selling books during the last Christmas season.

LENSKI, LOIS. *Davy Goes Places*. Walck, 1961. 46p. \$1.75.

This is another in Lois Lenski's "Davy Books" series for ages 3 to 6. In this book Davy rides a tricycle, a scooter, a car, a train, a taxi, a bus, a truck, a tractor. The very young will enjoy discovering with Davy the exciting ways he finds to go places.

LESIEG, THEO. *The Apples Up on Top*. Random House, 1961. unpag. \$1.95.

This is a fun story in rhyme for the very young reader just learning to read. But, beyond the laughs that a child will find in it, he will also discover the joy of mastering a simple basic vocabulary. The humorous illustrations are delightful.

LEWIS, JANET. *Keiko's Bubble*. Doubleday, 1961. 63p. \$2.50.

Janet Lewis, poet and writer for adults, has written a warm and charming story about Keiko, Japanese daughter of a fisherman, who wanted a doll but found even more pleasing the gift of a glass float for a fish net. She learned a lot from following the fortunes of the glass float, and luck it brought led to good things for Keiko and her family. The illustrations drawn by a Japanese artist, provide real-life glimpses of modern Japanese family life.

LINDMAN, MAJ. *Flicka, Ricka, Dicka and the Big Red Hen*. Whitman, 1961. unpag. \$1.50.

Flicka, Ricka and Dicka were three little girls. When they took care of a neighbor's chickens while she was away the Big Red Hen surprised them. Maybe she will surprise some of the five- or six-year olds to whom this story is read, or even some of the seven-year olds who can read it to themselves.

LIPKIND, WILLIAM. *Days To Remember*. Obolensky, 1961. unpag. \$3.95.

An almanac of a special kind, *Days to Remember* is not a reference work in which to look things up, but a book to read for pleasure, either straight through or skipping around, according to one's fancy. Holidays, the birthdays of famous men, seasonal changes, serve as a framework for a varied selection of fascinating lore from history, biography, natural history and science. The artist, Jerome Snyder, has given the book distinctive and appealing design. Readers of all ages will find much to interest them.

The Little Juggler. Hastings House, 1961. 48p. \$3.00.

The story of the juggler of Notre Dame is an old one whose charm has lasted many

hundreds of years. It has been told aloud, made into an opera, written and sung in many languages. Here is a new version that has been a labor of love by one of the foremost artists in this country, a former Caldecott Medal winner. The book glows with the life and color of ancient days in France and with the special joy and reverence of the little juggler.

LLOYD, PAMELA. *Samuel the Ambitious Flea*. Reilly & Lee, 1961. 31p. \$2.00.

Unlike his brothers, Samuel Flea was ambitious; he wanted to travel. And travel he did thanks to an accommodating ladybird beetle. Where he went, what he did, and how he finally got back to the Flea family is a lively and entertaining story.

LOMASK, MILTON. *The Secret of the One-Eyed Moose*. Farrar, Straus & Cudahy, 1961. 187p. \$2.95.

A mystery story for children with upper grade reading ability, this tale is set right in Chicago, and in our own time. There is an FBI agent, spy, micro-film secrets, theft, suspense and whatever else it takes to please the budding taste for detective stories. Sammy Kendal and his carrier pigeons are really the heroes.

LUBELL, WINIFRED AND CECIL. *Up a Tree*. Rand McNally, 1961. unpag. \$2.75.

This is a "fun" book for beginning readers and for adults who enjoy reading aloud to children. The story is a commonplace one. A cat is "caught" up a tree and simply cannot be persuaded to come down. Why this particular cat—the Siamese Kira—condescended to descent is told imaginatively and with much humor. Delightful details such as the "dream" rescues of Kira by each member of the family will delight children.

MCCALL, EDITH. *Wagons Over the Mountains*. Children's Press, 1961. 123p. \$2.50.

Five brief historic stories about famous Americans are presented here for middle elementary reading. Vocabulary and sentence structure well controlled, and the format sturdy and attractive. Interesting black and white illustrations accompany

each story. Excellent background for social studies. This book is recommended.

McCLUNG, ROBERT M. *Whitefoot, the Story of a Woodmouse*. Morrow, 1961. 48p. \$2.75.

Simply told, this story has an appeal that holds the interest and develops a sympathetic love of nature. The story is told for children 5 or 6 years old, with an interest and vocabulary for third grade children. The story and illustrations, beautifully printed, make a charming book for children.

McCORMICK, WILFRED. *Play for One*. McKay, 1961. 182p. \$3.00.

Upper elementary sport lovers will find an exciting story as Coach Rocky McCune faces the problem of dealing with two dangerous characters, both of whom are also talented players on his basketball team. The coach himself is in personal danger and finds himself involved in one crisis after another. A very tense story built around an unusual situation.

MACDONALD, GEORGE. *Princess and the Curdie*. Looking Glass Library, 1960. 263p. \$1.50.

This new edition of the classic story of *The Princess and Curdie* follows the text of the edition issued in 1912 by Blackie and Son, Ltd., in Glasgow. The illustrations by Helen Stratton were originally done in 1900 and added to in 1912. The story was first published in 1882.

MCGRADY, MIKE. *Crime Scientists*. Lippincott, 1961. 149p. \$3.25.

A fictionalized account of science in action. This book will have appeal where more formal presentations are not read.

McKEE, PAUL; HARRISON, LUCILE. *Let's Talk*. Houghton, Mifflin, 1961. 160p. \$2.32.

Six teaching units make up this colorfully illustrated, teachable English language text. They are: *Talking and Listening, Making Stories and Enjoying Poems, Planning Letters Together, Telling Things You Know, Telling Others about Books, and Telling What Things Are Like*.

McKIM, AUDREY. *Kexy for Short*. Westminster, 1961. 159p. \$3.00.

This mirthful story of a preacher's family moved from Ontario to Edmonton features Kexy, junior high daughter as the principal character, though the rest of the family, the neighbors and the rest of the community enter the loosely woven plot. Of course, everything turns out as one would wish. Light reading for upper grade girls.

MACLEOD, BEATRICE. *On Small Wings*. Westminster, 1961. 138p. \$2.95.

Eight-to-eleven-year-olds will enjoy this story of Muni, an Indian girl, who is torn between her native customs and way of life and those of her Western friends.

MAIDEN, CECIL. *Beginning with Mrs. McBee*. Vanguard, 1960. unpaginated. \$3.00.

"Doing something you can do very well, for somebody who needs it being done, not only pleases him, it pleases you." This is what Mrs. McBee said to Algernon Broadhurst when he wanted to repay her for a kindness she had done him. Little did she dream that this statement would set off a chain of happy adventures that would lead to the happiest of all—the realization of her own very fondest dream. Gaily and imaginatively written as well as enchantingly illustrated, this is a book that will delight the young of all ages.

MALONEY, TERRY. *Story of Clocks*. Sterling, 1961. 48p. \$2.50.

This is a helpful reference book for intermediate grades on the history of time keeping. It is ably illustrated.

MALONEY, TERRY. *The Story of the Stars*. Sterling, 1961. 48p. \$2.50.

Effectively written up-to-date introduction to the vocabulary of elementary astronomy. Functionally illustrations help early teeners to build concepts of size and variety and to develop an appreciation for man's quest for knowledge.

MARINO, DOROTHY. *Good Night Georgie*. Dial Press, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.50.

Georgie visited Grandpa and Grandma on their farm and met many new friendly animals and interesting experiences. After

supper Grandpa and Georgie went around to see that things were all right and to say good night. Quite out of date ideas of farm life, but interesting for pre-school and first graders.

MAYNE, WILLIAM. *Underground Alley*. Dutton, 1961. 168p. \$3.00.

This ■■ improbable, and as interesting ■ tale ■■ has come out of Wales in many years. Thirteen-year-old Patty in helping get ready for the "town day" celebration makes an historical discovery, starting right in her own work-shop basement. The mayor learns things about the town he never knew before, and the visit of the prince is made particularly satisfactory. For ages 9 to 12.

MERRIAM, EVE. *Mommies at Work*. Knopf, 1961. unp. \$3.00.

Eve Merriam, poet and writer of adult ■■ well as juvenile books, has in this warmly satisfying book portrayed many mothers working at different jobs, making very real to children an important part of their everyday world.

MEYERS, BARLOW. *The Blue Runner*. Westminster, 1960. 204p. \$2.95.

A turbulent story of ■ lonely boy's effort to make good on his father's ranch. The realism of ranching and the unglamorized life of subduing wild horses border on violence and sadism. A true "action" book.

MILES, JOSEPHINE. *Ways of the Poem*. Prentice Hall, 1961. 440p. \$3.25.

To like a poem is often to want to talk about it, to hear it over and think about what is heard. This book begins with the ways and terms of such hearing. Then it proceeds to ■■ abundance of poems of all kinds, composed of different points of view by ■ hundred poets of four centuries in England and America. Finally, it considers poets ■■ well as poetry. Intended as ■ college text, it is of interest also to the general reader.

MILLER, HELEN TOPPING. *Christmas at Sagamore Hill*. Longmans, 1960. 55p. \$2.50.

Continuing Helen Topping Miller's popular series of fictional Christmas vignettes

about famous persons in America's past, *Christmas at Sagamore Hill* will be of interest to Theodore Roosevelt admirers of all ages and offers another perceptive side-glance into American history. Other Christmas vignettes in this series are: *Christmas at Monticello*, *Christmas with Robert E. Lee*, *Christmas at Mount Vernon*, *Christmas for Tad*, and *Her Christmas at the Hermitage*.

MIRCHISON, NAOMI. *Young Alexander the Great*. Roy, 1961. 118p. \$3.00.

This very readable account of Alexander at thirteen-fourteen should go well in the elementary library where it will be enjoyed by students interested in history. The author has taken many liberties with time, places and names, but her picture is so good that it doesn't matter. She explains her reason for this. It will make companion reading for excellent *Alexander's Horses*, which these readers like so much.

MONTGOMERIE, NORA—illustrator. *Twenty-Five Fables*. Abelard-Schuman, 1961. 60p. \$2.95.

The fables are handled quite well in the re-telling, and the illustrations, which are unusual, are exceptionally good. This book is decidedly worth recommending.

MOORE, MARY; FULLER, MURIEL. *Baby Sitters Story Book*. Longmans, 1960. 180p. \$2.95.

The idea back of this book—to provide baby-sitters with stories, poems, and riddles to read to children—is an excellent one. Also, the arrangement of the book is helpful. For instance, if you are minding a two-year-old, there is ■ section of Rhymes and Stories for Children from One to Four. Or when sitting with ■ child of five, there is a section of Poems and Stories for Children from Four to Six. The content of the book, however, is somewhat disappointing. There are far better anthologies of stories and poems available than are here assembled which baby sitters could use.

MOORE, NANCY. *Ermintrude*. Vanguard, 1960. unp. \$2.50.

How Ermintrude, a charming centipede, yearns to adorn each of her hundred lovely feet with ■ different kind of shoe only to

learn one simple truth: that "Pretty is as pretty does," forms the theme of this gay and fanciful story. *Ermintrude* is the happy result of a happy collaboration between Nancy Moore and Edward Leight, whose first book, *The Unhappy Hippopotamus*, was selected by the New York Times Art Jury as third of the ten best illustrated juveniles of the year.

MORSE, CAROL. *Green Light for Sandy*. Doubleday, 1961. 141p. \$2.50.

Sandy had enjoyed her summer job so much that she wanted to drop out of school and go back to it, even though she was in her senior year. Her family did not approve of course. How it all worked out happily will make interesting reading for upper elementary girls.

MUIR, LYNETTE. *The Unicorn Window*. Abelard-Schuman, 1961. 168p. \$3.00.

A delightfully fantastic tale of Anne and Patrick who accidentally break a stained glass window with a unicorn in the design. In following the escaping unicorn they come to the land of Armorie where their experiences are most interesting, until they finally recapture the unicorn and return to the land of reality. A wonderful story for children about 8 to 12.

MULLER, LORAINÉ. *Little Sardine*. Denison, 1960. unpaginated. \$2.75.

A beautifully illustrated story about a juvenile sardine, who had a dream which saved him very likely from a tragic end. For the very young. Excellent format.

NASH, MARY. *Mrs. Coverlet's Magicians*. Little, Brown, 1961. 189p. \$3.25.

Mrs. Coverlet, the Persevers' housekeeper, is obliged to forsake her young Persevers. But Malcolm and Molly and Toad Persever are not to be left alone. Miss Eva Penalty is to move right in with them. This is too much for Toad who loathes the sticky spinster. How Toad resorts to his *Do-It-Yourself Book of Practical Witchcraft* to get them all out of Miss Penalty's control makes a fast-moving, interesting, and at times, humorous story. Ages 8-12.

NELSON, LEE. *All the Sounds We Hear*. Steck, 1960. 39p. \$1.75.

A charming book is this dealing artfully with the sense of hearing. In a quiet, rhythmic way, the reader is introduced to the varied sounds we hear—crackling fires, gurgling brooks, droning bees. The accompanying illustrations admirably supplement the text and help provide the desired effect for the sounds described.

NELSON, MARGUERITE. *Mystery at Land's End*. Farrar, Strauss, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

Marcia, fifteen-year-old daughter of a roving government employee, spends one year with her aunt, uncle and cousin Chet. She anticipates a normal high school life; instead, she becomes deeply involved in helping solve the mystery of the Grant-Weatherby relationship. Grant is her secret "Prince Charming." Story moves briskly and would provide light reading for the "middle" teen-ager.

NIXON, K. *Animal Mothers and Babies*. Warne, 1961. 63p. \$3.50.

This picture book of animal mothers with their babies will delight children. The illustrations are remarkably true to life. The information about how the animals live and bring up their young is simply but directly told. Well-known animals as well as many "zoo" favorites are included.

NORMAN, CHARLES. *Orimha of the Mohawks*. Macmillan, 1961. 94p. \$2.75.

A brief account of the experiences of the young French explorer, Pierre Esprit Radisson, while he was kidnapped and adopted by the Indians. A historical story based on the explorer's own records. Elementary readers interested in the period of American history will find the story of his adventures very interesting.

OBERRREICH, ROBERT. *Blood Red Belt*. Doubleday, 1961. 143p. \$2.50.

Peter Casson was sixteen years old when he joined his father in the woods country of the North, where the American Fur Company needed a manager. Peter and his father's chief trapper discovered a young Indian, wounded, lying in the snow. How they rescued him, how the two boys became friends, how they uncovered a mystery and a spies' plot will absorb upper elementary readers.

OFFIT, SIDNEY. *Cadet Quarterback*. St. Martin's, 1961. 183p. \$3.50.

Set in an eastern military prep school, this story seems to be told with the idea of showing upper elementary readers that a person can maintain his individuality and still be on the team. Bruce, the hero in this case, makes some glaring blunders, but being a natural quarterback he does get ahead, and his activities make an interesting story.

PACK, ROBERT. *Then What Did You Do?* Macmillan, 1961. unpag. \$3.00.

When Mrs. O'Dew plopped ten alley-cats into a sack and brought them home to chase away the mice, she set off a chain of hilariously humorous happenings. It's all told in lilted verse and amusing pictures. Ages 6-8.

PALAZZO, TONY. *Animal Folk Tales of America*. Doubleday, 1961. 88p. \$2.95.

Tony Palazzo in his wonderful style and with his usual unusual illustrations here gives his version of some of the tall tales of America. There are 18 samples including such characters as Paul Bunyan, Pecos Bill, Davy Crockett, Johnny Appleseed, Sweet Betsy, and enough more to make up the 18 tales. Written and illustrated for ages 4 to 8.

PALLA, NORVIN. *Big Cat Mystery*. Washburn, 1961. 147p. \$2.95.

Two college boys on vacation solve a mystery while collecting news and pictures for the local paper. The way they think things through in solving the fascinating problem concerning wild animals should please Ted Wilford fans. Written in fast moving style this well-written mystery maintains suspense to the last page.

PELPRE, PURA. *Perez and Martina*. Warne, 1961. unpag. \$2.95.

This Puerto Rican folk-tale, long familiar to Spanish speaking children, now appears for the first time in English. The story is delightfully told by Pura Belpre who gives it exactly as it was told her by her grandmother. Carlos Sanchez has caught the mood of this quaint old tale in his colorful pictures.

Poetry Drawing Book. Simon and Schuster, 1960. unpag. \$1.95.

The compilers of this poetry-drawing book believe, and rightly so, that most coloring books tend to encourage conformity rather than creativity and that all too often children do not appreciate poetry as much as their elders might wish. The poetry-drawing book should aid in solving both difficulties. The forty poems presented should have a special personal interest for the child, since he is offered the opportunity to illustrate them—and the pictures he makes will be the products of his own imagination and creativity.

POOLE, LYNN AND GRAY. *Danger! Icebergs Ahead!* Random House, 1961. 81p. \$1.95.

An "easy to read book," this account begins with the story of the "Titanic," follows the typical iceberg from the beginning of formation to the end. The rest of the book describes activities of the International Ice Patrol. There are excellent photographs, maps and charts, plus many facts which young elementary research people will find valuable for their reports.

POSELL, ELSA. *Dogs*. Children's Press, 1961. 47p. \$2.00.

This book of pictures of different kinds of dogs and of information for young readers is just the thing for lower grades. Children in the latter part of the first grade can read it themselves, maybe. Second and third grades can read it easily. Any boy or girl with a dog will love it.

POSELL, ELSA. *Horses*. Children's Press, 1961. 47p. \$2.00.

Horse lovers at the primary level, and it seems there are many, will welcome this book about horses that they can really read. There are lively pictures on each page, large clear type, brief interesting text, and the unusual words of definite character which will easily add to their vocabulary. Excellent format. We find that the book has much for the very young reader. Recommended.

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This popular textbook stresses practical application of basic theory. The opening chapters deal with the teacher's general problems, responsibilities, and planning. These are followed by one or more method chapters which treat specific areas—reading, writing and speaking. The book con-

cludes with material on the supervision of co-curricular activities, and on the teacher's personal qualities and his relationship with colleagues and others in the community. Idea boxes at the end of each chapter provide a rich source of tested classroom procedure. 2nd Ed., 1959. 529 pp., *illus.* **\$6**

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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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NUMBER 4

Editorial—

A New Year's Bow to Professor Shelton Joseph Phelps

What more fitting as a New Year's editorial can one write than in praise of one who has taught him well? In that connection Professor Shelton Phelps is named.

He came to Peabody as a graduate student in 1915. Prior to that his college work had been done at the State Teachers College at Springfield, Missouri, and at the University of Missouri. Peabody gave him the doctorate three years later. Immediately he began teaching the courses in Administration and Statistics. In 1927 he was appointed Dean of the Graduate School. He withdrew from that assignment in 1934 to accept the Presidency of Winthrop College, South Carolina. Fourteen years later he died, too soon but allowing time for an excellent career.

The Phelps period at Peabody was a rich era. The student body was small, able, mostly Southern, and well-distributed. Here are samples of those enrolled in the Phelps courses: C. B. Collier from Alabama, Howard Dawson from Arkansas, A. W. Birdwell from Texas, H. L. Donovan from Kentucky, Oren Crow from South Carolina, Ray Hamon from Florida, C. C. Sherrod from Tennessee, H. M. Ivy from Mississippi, J. A. Highsmith from North Carolina, M. S. Robertson from Louisiana, C. A. Phillips from Missouri, B. F. Haught from West Virginia.

If you recognize those names you will know that they were men with well-anchored opinions, and that not one of them asked for a greater boon than the opportunity to defend them. There was freedom of speech in Dr. Phelps' classroom, and its sessions were articulate and resounding. At each class meeting the teacher let them go as long as it was safe, but always the last word belonged to him. He calmed the tumult, reassured their minds, and pronounced the benediction. He could say "yes" to a student without yielding, and "no" without offense. He could demand grimly, but he could give gladly, and a student had but to prove himself to become permanent in the teacher's esteem, and the beneficiary of all possible service, counsel, and good will. The Phelps' record is one of the bright pages of the Peabody story.

Our Purpose

The Peabody Journal of Education was established at a faculty meeting held in the early spring of 1923. Its purpose, to publish articles belonging in the field of teaching and supplied by (1) the Staff of the College; (2) the Alumni of the College, and (3) the general teaching public. It is our editorial belief that the first category has been in short supply, and that the other two have been much more generous. The Alumni for instance are represented in this issue by Deer, Bradford, Cobb, Wireman, and Solomon.

The Teacher and World Understanding

GEORGE H. DEER, *Dean*
The Junior Division
Louisiana State University

Can we recreate our world into a real community of men, based on justice and understanding, on peace and good will? Can this world be gradually converted into a new world where no group of men is of necessity doomed in advance to ignorance, poverty, hunger, or fear? Can a real world unity—real world peace—ever be largely attained? Can children the world over be helped to grow up into the kinds of persons who will contribute toward this new world of heart's desire? What is the role of education and schools and teachers in our quest for unity and peace? Ah, but there's the rub!

To begin with we must know that mere unity for its own sake is not our goal, though many are naive enough to think so. Oneness within itself can guarantee no solution for human problems; under certain circumstances it may indeed become greatly destructive. The concept of oneness proclaims that all men are neighbors; but it cannot guarantee that they shall be *good* neighbors. It implies that all the world's people are one family; but even relatives often find it difficult to live freely and happily in close quarters. "Rubbing elbows sometimes creates severe friction." To be realistic, one must recognize two types of oneness among peoples: a physical oneness and a moral oneness. And the two must never be confused.

Physical oneness in this world has in large degree already come to pass. This is the oneness of physical contact and interdependence thrust upon peoples by scientific and technological advance. Accelerated transport and communication have brought every people with their goods and resources within reach of all the world. Aided by this easy mobility of materials and men and the means for controlling environment, populations have grown tremendously, leaving less and less space for absorbing the increase, and facing more and more men

with the necessity of living. In this mesh of contact and interdependence, systems of commerce and trade have grown up to satisfy the varieties of needs and greeds. This has put every country's tradesmen into the remotest communities of the globe; and these tradesmen have unwittingly been made our representatives in the thousand delicate relationships with the natives everywhere. From this accelerated mobility and communication men have become acquainted each with the other as never before was possible; and they have not always liked nor trusted what they saw. This new acquaintanceship has laid bare to all the ways of each: their religions and morals and folkways; their customs, modes and manners; their virtues and vices, strengths and frailties.

None would contend that this increased physical togetherness has resulted in real community of moral interests and values. In many respects it has served only to complicate our dilemma. Raymond Fosdick has spotlighted it in one area: "whether it is malaria or cholera or plague . . . the nations of the world face these enemies of mankind not as isolated groups . . . but as members of the human race projected suddenly into a frightening propinquity. We did not plan it this way . . . We wandered unwittingly into this situation. But here we are all jammed together into a single community, tied together by bonds which cannot be severed."¹

Perry has summed it up succinctly: "Every application of science that has drawn parts of the earth together [physically] has increased the power of a scheming nation to plunge all mankind into a devastating war . . . Men may use their new powers to destroy one another, or to destroy all save one exhausted and debased survivor."²

The alternative to destruction, thus, lies not in physical oneness but in the emergence of a *moral* unity among men and nations in the broad social sense of morality. Perry again pinpoints the moral-social dilemma now facing the world on this count, with its people crowded into this "frightening propinquity":

"The interests of men and animals, living in the same space-time world, tend to collide. What one interest demands can often be ob-

¹ R. E. Harrison, *Saturday Review of Literature*, Vol. XXVII, No. 27 (1944), p. 6.

² Ralph Barton Perry, *One World in the Making* (New York: A. A. Wyn Co., 1945), p. 42.

tained only at the expense of another. Two hungers cannot both consume the same bread, but they can want the same bread and endeavor to possess it . . . They will endeavor to exclude or dispossess one another. Their hunger is then converted into enmity, and they devote to one another's destruction the energy which was originally directed to obtaining the food."⁸

During the span of the present generation, this grim facet of man's social life has been so flagrantly on display that many have come to assess his nature altogether in these terms. Two world wars, uprisings of underdeveloped peoples, ruthless enslavement of vast groups by totalitarian rulers: these have fostered the cynical view that man is endowed only with his "predatory and combative instincts."

These cynical ones hold that when man is placed into the situation where "two hungers cannot both consume the same bread" he must always be expected to fall back upon his physiological mechanism and "devote to one another's destruction the energy which was originally directed to the obtaining of food" and that, as a part of our moral orientation, we are doomed to accept the dictum that "one or both will go hungry, and perhaps perish." Large segments of the world's peoples have come to accept this philosophy of social nightmare and to operate on the basis of its value system.

But such a concept leaves out of account man's real social potential: his capacity for the use of reason; for developing insights and understandings; for recognizing from observation and racial experience that cooperation and organization yield greater good to all—himself included—than sheer negation and violence; that "combined effort is greater than the sum of the results of isolated efforts."

"This is morality in the basic sense—," Perry speaking again, "non-conflict and cooperation achieved by organization, because of the hurt which they avoid and the help which they yield . . . Morality requires the subordination of partial to total good . . . It sets the total person above any one of his appetites; the family or neighborhood above any of its particular persons; the nation above the neighborhood, and the aggregate of all nations above anyone or any group less than all. The moral unity of the world consists of the extension of this same morality

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 44.

—the same standards, precepts, and institutions—to the interrelation of nations and of all mankind, so that they may live and let live, and work together in order that all may live more abundantly.”⁴

Morality thus reduces itself to a psychological basis: a set of attitudes, standards, feelings of relationship which one holds toward others whom his life touches. The quality of one’s morality is measured by the extent to which the pattern of these psychological drives, attitudes and values are dominated by (1) a selfish motif or by (2) a consideration for the well-being of the larger group. The moral person sees the interdependence of all. He has learned to identify his own good with the good of the whole. He has begun to sense the “wholeness of the human race.” To whatever extent all men can achieve this moral insight, to that extent we may be able to achieve a moral unity for this world, which has had physical unity already so unceremoniously thrust upon it.

Such is the perspective of our problem. How do education and schools and children fit into it? How does this relate to a first grade in Topeka; or a classroom teacher in New Orleans; or the state school system of Alabama? The clue lies in the very point that morality is psychological and is thus a direct product of the learning process. Morality at its base is a set of values, attitudes, behavior patterns. These are learned out of one’s experiences. One is not born with a ready-made set of beliefs or prejudices, no matter what one’s racial or family or community background. If he grows up to hate Jews or despise Chinese or suspect all foreigners, it is because experiences at home, at school or in the community have helped him learn to do so.

On the other hand, if we would have the child grow up to respect all men, to concede for others the same opportunities he desires for himself, we must set up the experience environment so that he will learn these ways of reacting through experience in practicing them. For in this emotional area of living, as in all others, it is one of the basic principles of human growth that we learn what we practice.

Since social morality is a direct product of the learning process, this puts the matter squarely before schools and teachers; for in all cultures teachers are the custodians of learning. It is their business in every

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 45.

culture to organize and direct schools, which are maintained simply to provide a controlled environment into which all the children are brought to live together and work together and play together so that they can be helped through practice to grow up into the kinds of persons the culture wants them to be. The kinds of experiences the teachers and schools provide for children all over the world will then go far in determining the kinds of persons the world's children grow up to be, and most especially in determining their patterns of feeling and thinking towards other peoples of the world.

It has already been emphasized that a person learns what he practices. In the milieu of experiences provided in America's average classroom today—and those over the world—what kinds of feeling and thinking are the children practicing toward others? Are they generally practicing feelings of suspicion or superiority or insecurity toward others, and especially toward others different from themselves, feelings which finally crystallize into habits of fear and hate? Or generally does the atmosphere in the classroom help the children to practice feelings of acceptance, confidence, good will, equality toward each other and toward outsiders? Kilpatrick has said we really “learn anything to the degree that we live it, in the degree that we accept it in our hearts for use in life.” Skillful teachers the world over are providing opportunity for their children to learn patterns of acceptance and good will and trust by actually practicing it in their living within the school group.

In our attempts to perceive this role of the school, there is danger that we shall make the problem appear too complicated, too difficult, too remote—as many surely have done. Some think in grandiose proportions of world citizenship, world society, all but eliminating national and cultural lines. This is unrealistic. In a recent yearbook of the John Dewey Society it was pointed out that “no national school system is ready yet to think in terms of a world society as one of its major aims.” In the same vein, the NEA's committee on International Relations chose as title for a recent volume *Educating for International Understanding*, not “Educating for a World Society” or “Educating for World Citizenship.” Even UNESCO puts the emphasis on use of the term “educating for world understanding.”

This whole problem may be much simpler than we often perceive it. One authority insists that the teacher who helps his children continually to take turns at the slide, to choose between two simple projects, or to accept a new child in class is laying the foundation in his children's minds for world understanding. "For world understanding," he contends, "is basically the acceptance of other persons, whether they are similar or different."⁵ When the teacher is helping his children learn this through practicing it in the classroom, he is advancing them toward the ability "to work with rather than against others." This is the rock-bottom basis of understanding. The classroom can become a potentially powerful social laboratory for this kind of experience in democratic group living.

Kenworthy insists that it is the teacher who is the keystone. "If the teacher is provincial in his thought and . . . in his attitude, it is likely that his students will follow that pattern. If the teacher is . . . sympathetic in his attitudes toward other lands and peoples . . . it is likely that his students will grow in this direction . . . They are developing in their students patterns of action toward others which will accelerate or retard the development of world community."⁶

Research in the area of attitude development offers guidance for the teacher who is concerned in developing his effectiveness in this area. It has been established that such a teacher must be a well integrated individual himself. One study found that teachers who are aggressive, hostile, belligerent themselves do harm to children's development, that it is the secure, healthy, mature person who makes a contribution to world understanding.

It has already been pointed out that if persons are to grow up with understanding and tolerance and good will they must learn these through practicing as children. It follows, then, that the teacher should be adept in understanding the behavior of others and in knowing how to help children practice those activities—physical, intellectual, emotional—that will result in desirable attitudes toward other people.

This calls also for a teacher deeply rooted in his own culture. Some have felt that to be "world-minded" one must reject his own national

⁵ Leonard S. Kenworthy, *World Horizons for Teachers*. (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952), p. 10.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

loyalties. A few go so far even as to renounce national citizenship. The best preparation for world understanding is an appreciative understanding of one's own culture and a loyal faith in its values. World understanding can never come from making all alike; it will be approached to the degree that we can learn to live together with our differences—and to accept the differences as valuable.

The preamble to the UNESCO constitution carries the statement that “ignorance of each other's ways and lives has been a common cause of that suspicion and mistrust between peoples of the world through which their differences have all too often led to war.” In the past we have often overemphasized the differences which separate men and nations and cause conflict. As his experiences increase and his sensitivity grows, the effective teacher begins to see that peoples are really more alike than different, that whatever differences do exist are acquired and not inherited, that there are as many differences between people within a nation as exist between peoples of different nations. With the acquirement of this insight the teacher is approaching a personal world understanding, which will inevitably become infectious among his students.

And to paraphrase St. Paul, “without faith you are nothing.” The teacher who accepts the goal of helping children develop such an understanding will meet with many discouragements. Many of his associates will be antagonistic, many others indifferent. He will need a deep faith to sustain him: faith in the rightness of his goal; a strong faith in humanity itself; faith in boys and girls and in their capacity and will to learn new patterns of understanding. He must know that this objective may be slow in yielding, that it may not be realized in his lifetime, or even perhaps in the lifetime of many generations to come. Even so, this goal will give direction and meaning to his work. Such faith will help the teacher understand that the sailor may never actually reach the North Star which guides him across the dangerous sea, but that this does not lessen the validity of the star for giving direction for his course.

Whole nations have used schools and teachers as instruments for creating hate. Schools and teachers in more and more cultures must become instruments for creating world understanding in children's

minds. It is this prospect that gives hope and inspiration. Against a world backdrop of cynicism and hate, of atomic weapons and iron curtains, there is a constant danger that all over the world we shall give way to pessimism and despair. But there is always this one source of hope, this one anchor for our faith: so long as every people in the world can have always a new generation of children and with them an army of intelligent, devoted, understanding teachers, we can never be denied *our beginnings again!* Given these, we shall sustain our hope for diminishing fear and hate. Given these, we may survive, even.

The Challenging Revolution . . . In Higher Education

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Although the writer had several encounters with the story as a child, it was not until as a graduate student, while making a radio-script adaptation of that imaginative work of literary grace and charm, *Rip Van Winkle*, that a significant but somewhat undiscerning message was revealed to him. That was the sign on the inn in the little town on the Hudson from which *Rip Van Winkle* went up into the Catskill mountains for his long sleep. When he first passed by that sign, on it was a picture of George III of England. When he returned, after twenty years sleep, on it was a picture of George, "the first," "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." *Rip*, staring at that picture of George Washington, was confused and frustrated. Why? What was the outstanding thing about this incident? Certainly, it was not that he had slept for twenty years (almost anyone could do that!). The significant thing about *R.V.W.* was that he **SLEPT THROUGH A REVOLUTION**. While he was peacefully snoring up in the mountains, there had been a tremendous change which completely reorganized the pattern of living of his world.

This little non-ecclesiastical, secular parable is symptomatic of the attitude of a great many Americans today concerning the impending revolution in higher education.

BACKGROUND DATA OF THE REVOLUTION

It is now well recognized and generally accepted among those in higher education that college and university enrollments will be approximately doubled within the next ten or fifteen years. With the present compulsory school attendance laws, information concerning the number of births each year in each state, the data giving the percentage of survival for each age group, and even the estimates of

migration trends, very accurate projections of college enrollements can be made. Since it is known when, where, and in what numbers the children have been born, it can be determined when and in what number they will be graduated from secondary school.

Estimates have been made of full-time equivalent new staff needs by 1970:¹

Junior Colleges	15,620
State Colleges	12,185
Universities	9,345
Private Colleges and Universities	5,294

Executives in institutions of higher education have known since 1953, when the first thorough study concerning the future enrollment in American Colleges and Universities was made for the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, that a tremendous enrollment “boom” would shortly descend upon their institutions.

The fact that college executives have this information will not provide the faculties, physical facilities and financial resources which will make possible the type and quality of higher education America desires for her increasing numbers of youth. Frankly, the full impact of this fact has not fully reached the general public, nor have materialistic preparations been properly made for this number. Some states, such as Florida, under the direction of James L. Wattenbarger and the office of Florida Community Colleges, are following an organized projected plan for the future.

COMMUNICATE THE DATA

“Higher education, through its publications, is the poorest sold product in America,” Laurence Siefried, chairman of the Department of Printing at Carnegie Institute of Technology and one of the nation’s leading authorities on printing, declared as early as 1945 in a lecture on “The Place of Publications in College and University Public Relations” at the Seminar on Public Relations for Higher Education at

¹ A study of *Faculty Demand and Supply in California Higher Education, 1957-1970*, prepared for the liaison Committee of the Regents of the University of California and the California State Board of Education, Berkeley and Sacramento, 1958.

Syracuse University. "The principal reason for this failure is the fact that college personnel persist in writing for each other rather than for the publics to whom the publications are supposed to be of interest." The propagandist and power-seeking despots of this world have long known the power of communication. They have been trying to steal the purity of language that free society has inherited, in order to subvert them to the purposes of tyranny. Are the American people guilty of the same when they go through the almost hopeless exercise of communicating their dilemma to the public by either castigation of redundancy and cliches or academic bartering?

A grant has made possible the establishment of a public information center for the junior college movement. This development has already paid for itself sevenfold. We could, and must, do more on the regional and local "grass roots" level to avoid semantical ambiguities and to state in a simple, direct and clear manner, in words and means the layman can comprehend and "make no mistake about," the needs, goals, and significance of higher education in a world competing for a trained and educated citizenry.

The American people, in general, have supported causes in which they believe. They will support, however, only those endeavors concerning which they are informed and concerning which they are convinced there is a need. One of our first tasks then, is to inform the faculties, boards of control, medias of mass communication and others who will listen. Ultimately, of course, those who are to provide the facilities and financial support must be convinced of the need. The old adage that "what people are not up on, they're likely to be down on" appears relevant to our thesis.

MAKE DATA A REALITY

Knowledge of the problem without action is useless. Americans are in danger of rocking themselves to sleep by the common lament that "everybodys' business is nobodies' business"—a twentieth century tranquilizing, R.V.W. While there is a little time to prepare, it must be remembered that it takes time to give the public the proper information of this growing need. Freshmen will appear without effort, but it takes years to train professors to teach them. Classes can be formed

overnight, but commensurate physical facilities takes months of planning and additional months of construction.

Several foundations and philanthropic organizations have responded to this growing need. One example is the fund for the Advancement of Education, established in 1951, that made possible the Harvard Twenty-Nine College Plan. A program for teacher preparation conducted jointly by Vanderbilt University and George Peabody College for Teachers was made a reality approximately twelve months later through the generous grant from the same fund. Johns Hopkins University, Brown University, Yeshiva University and Barnard College have also benefited from these grants.²

The Ford Foundation has supported other similar programs at other institutions (such as the Woodrow Wilson Fellowship Program) with goals toward supplying the present and future need in higher education.

Another program organized in 1951, the Carnegie Graduate Fellowship Program at George Peabody College, admitted approximately twenty superior liberal-arts graduates each year to prepare for college teaching.

To elicit action and to lend their support to this problem, the President's Commission on National Goals in its final report last year listed the development of junior colleges within commuting distance of most high school graduates as one of the six important things that should be done in education. Since the problem is national in scope and since there are elements of urgency in the current situation, the W. K. Kellogg Foundation announced on March 4, 1960, a series of grants to assist the establishment of five University Centers for the preparation of community and junior college administrators. These first grants went to University of Texas, Teachers College, Columbia University, Stanford University, University of California (Berkeley), and the University of California at Los Angeles. Five other centers have been established since then.

Foundations such as Sears-Roebuck, Lilly Endowment, United States Steel, General Electric and others have also demonstrated growing interest in the junior college of the present and future.

² "The Ford Foundation and Teacher Education," *Teachers College Record*, LXII, (December, 1960), pp. 224-31.

The National Merit Scholarship Program, fellowships from industry and Federal Programs have supplied other grants for higher education.

Although all these liberal grants mentioned above and other similar grants are exceedingly encouraging, the programs they support are greatly curtailed because they are limited to these exact funds and therefore the institutions themselves are left with many other financial burdens too great for any organization to try to underwrite. "The salaries of the faculties must increase at least 125 percent by 1970 if there will be any quality in higher education in the future,"³ not to mention the physical plant and other multitudinous needs.

During an address before the National Conference on School Finance in May, 1958, Erick Lindman pointed out the paradoxical danger of our dilemma:

The real danger to our public schools lies in the slow attrition of the school budget rather than in a dramatic crisis. A crisis demands attention and gets it, but slow deterioration is likely to go uncorrected. The present national concern about the quality of American education may spend itself without prompting a realistic search for school dollars needed to improve the quality of teaching.⁴

The realization of the inherent dangers of revolution and change have lifted some from the thralls of a deep R.V.W. sleep—only to escape again from the realities to an even more critical avenue—that of 'academic scapegoatism.' Criticism of American higher education is invited and healthy, but escape through fault-finding and name-calling should not be used to obscure the fact that our institutions of higher education are seldom more than a reflection of what their respective publics want them to be.

Hogarth indicates that "it will be another tribute to the effectiveness of this democracy if the problem is solved without additional Federal assistance."⁵ Addressing himself primarily to the layman he further states that unless the various publics support this effort, the Federal government should take over.

³ John P. Lewis, William G. Pinnell, and Herman B. Wells, "Needs, Resources, and Priorities in Higher Education Planning," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XLII, (September, 1957), pp. 434-35.

⁴ Erick Lindman, "Problems and Issues in Public-School Finance," *Proceedings of the National Conference on School Finance Problems*, 1958, pp. 22-23.

⁵ Charles P. Hogarth, *Crisis in Higher Education*, (Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1957), p. vi.

The author, aware that *more* Federal aid is an approaching necessity, does not wish to imply that 'grassroot' efforts are to be used as defensive means to counteract the almost inevitable, but, on the contrary, to have us come to grips at all levels of our educational structure (local, state, and Federal) with the constant revelation and freshness of our dilemma.

A lay, non-professional effort on a national level could be carried out similar to the curriculum proposal of Dean Fischer,⁶ Teachers College, Columbia University, who writes that "there is a place in the American educational establishment for deliberate, concerted, national effort to improve our schools."

Although he claims no originality for this scheme, Dr. Fischer proposes:

A group to be called the National Council on Education, or by some similar title. It might be chartered by the Congress, as the American Red Cross and other national groups are chartered. The council, board or whatever other designation it may carry would consist of perhaps fifteen members. The first members should be appointed by the President of the United States but upon appointment of the initial membership, the group would become self-perpetuating

The responsibilities of the group would be limited to making studies of educational problems, commissioning research and experimentation, and publishing findings and such proposals for policy as might from time to time appear desirable.

This group would make no policy, serve no vested interest, be free of political affiliation and would depend on no simple budget. "The sole purpose of such an effort," Dr. Fischer states, "should be to explore and illuminate the relationship between education and our national purpose."

He continues by stating that "the values of local freedom are considerable and should be retained. But local autonomy can be harmful if those who exercise it are not well informed and wisely oriented."

The line of communication, then, is two-way vertical (top to bottom and bottom to top) and two-way horizontal.

This is 'grassroots'! It's democratic! It's an American approach to an American revolution in higher education.

⁶ John H. Fisher, "A National Council Needed to Define Education's Goals," *The Nation's Schools*, December, 1960.

In his short booklet written in plain, direct English, Hogarth emphasizes the future crisis in higher education with this urgent summary statement:

Remember tomorrow! If most of the people of this country wait until 1970 to help the colleges provide for twice the present number of students, the job will not be done. Fortunately the rising tide will be gradual, but nonetheless imminent. Most of the people of this country prefer to approach problems in a gradual manner. Now is the time to face the emergency and to start providing for it in a gradual way each year during the next fourteen years.⁷

Over five years have passed since this was written. Time is growing short. A revolution is upon American education. America should not wake up too late, as R.V.W. did, to discover that they have slept through one of the most challenging and revolutionary periods in American higher education that shall change the pattern of living for the age.

⁷ Hogarth, *op. cit.*

What Happened In 1961?

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I am committed to write about “What Happened in 1961?” and with just a preliminary remark or two I shall get to the subject.

Your opinion or mine about the importance of an event of the past twelve months is affected of course by many things. Did it touch us emotionally for example? Did it bear on one of our pet enthusiasms? Did it accord with our political beliefs or our particular prejudices? In brief, what may seem vitally important to one of you will appear trivial or commonplace to another and vice versa.

In the short space available, I should like to do three things: (1) first merely remind you of several events of the year with only the briefest of comment, (2) discuss in a little more detail perhaps three events or trends, and (3) try to make some evaluation of 1961 as it may bear on our future.

What did happen in 1961? There was:

a. The Kennedy inauguration on that bitterly cold January day when the speaker’s stand caught fire and an unrecorded number of bare-legged baton twirlers wished they had stayed at home.

b. There was the Cuban fiasco at Pigg Bay—an example this time of “too soon with too little.” As a sequel we could mention the admission of Castro only a short time ago that he really is a communist; as if it really makes any difference what he is. The problem would still be the same if he had said he belonged to the John Birch Society.

c. There was the sale of the painting, “Aristotle Contemplating the Bust of Homer,” for \$2,300,000. Apparently, someone still prefers Renaissance art to the contemporary. There is a suggestion here, too, that we may have some appreciation for something other than automobiles, television sets, and miscellaneous appliances.

d. Cincinnati came into the sports spotlight with the NCAA basket-

ball championship at the University and with the Reds winning the National League pennant. Then the Damn Yankees had to humiliate the Reds and spoil everything. This, too, was the year of the M & M boys and the 61 home runs that didn't set a record.

e. The international brush fires continued to flare up—set by the communists or ignited by the fervor of independence and nationalism—the Congo, Algeria, Laos, South Vietnam, and Berlin.

f. There was the Belgrade Conference where the Neutralists got confused about where Santa Claus lives. Maybe we should change the tradition that Santa wears a “*red*” suit. Actually the conference meant little beyond providing a platform for a few egotistical leaders to vent their ire against so-called “western imperialism.” The conference is already in the realm of forgotten events.

g. The successes or failures of the Kennedy program of domestic legislation. “What successes?” you Republicans are saying and you Democrats answer, “What failures.” Actually there *were* both.

h. Dag Hammarskjöld's death in the Congo and the choice of U. Thant as his successor. Hammarskjöld's death was a shocking and tragic thing, and many thought it might signal the end of the United Nations. In retrospect, it appears that the effect may have been the opposite. At least there is still hope that the U. N. may some day fulfill its destiny, though it is growing more evident each day that it needs drastic overhauling.

i. If time permitted we could comment on many other events of sixty-one: the Rockefeller tragedy; the death of such political greats as Sam Rayburn and Styles Bridges; the frequent visits to America of the heads of foreign states; the renewed emphasis on civil defense; the first astronauts, Russian and American; the renewal of atomic tests and the explosion of the 50 megaton bomb, and we could mention even the introduction of the Twist. Finally we shouldn't forget that the passing year, 1961, reads the same turned upside down. Not important of course, but it won't happen again they say until the year 6009. So that can be disposed of as far as this company is concerned.

But there are three happenings or rather trends that I have reserved

for special attention because they seem to have more important implications for us all.

The first of these is the sudden emergence again of the extremists. On the one hand are the super-patriots or, as one writer has described them, the “irresponsible rightists”: The John Birch Society, the Southern Association of Intelligence Agents, the National Indignation Convention, The Christian Anti-Communist Crusade; We, the People; The Conservative Society of America, the All-American Society, the Minutemen and so on. All of them seem to have one thing in common; they identify communism with everything they don’t like whether it be in the area of religion, politics, or merely the fluoridation of water. Oppositely there are those, as yet unorganized and unnamed, who assert that if a choice *must* be made they would rather be *red* even than *dead*. These then are some of our extremists, 1961 variety. Perhaps we should merely shrug them off as crack-pot and unimportant. They probably are in themselves, but they are symbolic of our lack of unity, of our tendency to align ourselves into pressure groups for essentially selfish purposes, and to ignore the welfare of the nation or society at large. Only recently it was pointed out that Congress is now under pressure in every session from about 250 special-interest groups, most of them with organized and paid lobbies. Illustrations of this divisiveness and self-interest are not hard to find.

a. We can cite the segregationists who refuse to see the handwriting on the wall; or oppositely, the fanatical integrationists totally without restraint or patience.

b. We can cite the business and industrial organizations that cry out against creeping socialism, but never question the fat contract or subsidy, the benefits of federally-financed highways, or of protective tariffs.

c. We could mention the medical groups that agonize about socialized medicine and yet dip unhesitatingly into research funds far more lush than are available to any other professional group or discipline. And the sources of these funds, of course, are the federal government and organized charity. Apparently a practice or proposal is socialistic if it helps the other fellow and particularly the less privileged or needy. If it helps me, it is good old free enterprise.

d. And let's not leave out educational organizations with which I am identified. For seventy-five years we have periodically made appeals for general federal aid to higher education. But what have we got. Aid in dribblets to dozens of special educational purposes and interests until now no one but a dedicated student of the subject can possibly tell you how much the federal government is already spending on education or identify the dozens of agencies and interests involved. Divided, and concerned primarily with our more narrow interests, we have made it easy for opponents of a general aid program to use the segregation and religious issues to prevent consideration of the question on its real merits. A dog-in-the manger attitude is distasteful any time but especially so when assumed by people who by education and position ought to be above it.

And this same pulling and hauling and this same lack of concern for the national welfare, as opposed to the group interest, is evident also in organized agriculture and labor. And you, I am sure, could cite other illustrations. We need apparently in this country to heed the advice of one of our beloved poets, Robert Frost, who put it this way:

Don't join too many gangs
Join few if any
Join the United States
and join the family
And not much in between
unless ■ college

A European diplomat has said that the Communist world understands unity, but not liberty; while the free world understands liberty, but not unity. Eventually victory may be won by the first of the two sides to achieve the synthesis of both liberty and unity. Let's pray that we shall be first.

The second of my three items of prime concern is the growing evidence of moral deterioration in America. I cite organized crime which has fastened its ugly tentacles on many urban communities and has allegedly infiltrated some of our labor organizations. It is frightening that we seem so defenseless against syndicated crime, but more terrifying to me that we can remain so casual and unconcerned about it. For example, how much really active support have Kentuckians

given our Governor and Attorney General in their efforts to clean up Newport? The year has seen huge industries charged with (and in some cases actually convicted of) collusion, price fixing, and conspiracy against the public interest. Only recently the press has carried the story that we are spending in this country annually as much on gambling as we do for national defense. And that, as you know, is between 40 and 50 billion dollars. What are America's moral and ethical standards? Or do we have any?

The final consideration is on the more hopeful side. It is our increasing support for a "get tough" policy in international affairs. Apparently there are more and more millions who, regardless of their political preferences, are willing to support the thesis that "we must never fear to negotiate, but we must never negotiate from fear." And there are signs it seems to me that genuine firmness and plain talk, without undue belligerency, are paying off.

So much for what happened in 1961. What has the year taught us, if anything? Again this is a matter of opinion. For me it has emphasized what we have been slowly realizing for many years. We shall not be rid of the Red menace in our generation or perhaps for many generations. If we can avoid a major conflict, and I think the odds are a little better than even that we can, there may be a gradual softening of the Soviet position under mankind's never-ceasing pressures for the better life and for freedom and for justice. This, however, may be nothing but wishful thinking on my part.

It has emphasized to me further that this nation's greatest needs throughout the years of continuing crises are a dedicated but intelligent patriotism; the placement of the national interest above our narrow and selfish group concerns; higher moral and ethical standards in our personal and group life; and an unflinching firmness in facing the Communist challenge.

Thank you for reading this. Let me wish all of you a happy New Year.

Recreation and America's National Purpose

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The increasing amount of leisure or "discretionary" time which the average American is enjoying today is being viewed with mixed emotions. That we have been able to build a society in which many people can enjoy a comparatively high standard of living is a tribute to our ability to mass produce efficiently. We should be proud of this achievement. On the other hand, history tells us that when the desire for leisure and recreation becomes the most compelling motivational force in a culture a gradual moral and physical decay often results. Western philosophers and historians see similarities between the Roman society of the Neronian age and the American society of today. They point out that the Romans changed from an industrious, serious people who emphasized physical vitality to a purposeless, luxury-minded nation who needed brutal gladiatorial combats and chariot races to satisfy their sensual desires. While all historians do not agree on the primary cause of the fall of this once great Empire, they generally do agree that one of the contributory factors was the moral and physical decay of the Roman people. Indeed, the Romans stand as an eloquent testimony to what a misuse of leisure can mean to a people who lose their self-discipline and sense of purpose.

Are there any lessons for us to learn from the Romans? Certainly we are vastly different in many ways, and it is open to speculation whether the two societies are comparable. A growing concern, however, has appeared among our national leaders that America has lost her sense of "national purpose" and is adrift in a turbulent stream of history with no great goals to which she aspires.

For example, W. W. Rostow, former Professor of Economic History at the Massachusetts of Technology, and now an advisor to President Kennedy, points out that no nation has ever moved past the mass

consumption stage in which we now find ourselves. Where do we go from here?

Listen to the words of Walter Lippmann, considered by many to be the Dean of American political columnists,

The critical weakness of our society is that for the time being our people do not have great purposes which they are united in wanting to achieve. The public mood of the country is defensive, to hold on and conserve, not to push forward and create. We talk about ourselves these days as if we were a completed society, one which has achieved its purposes, and has no other great business to transact.

President Eisenhower, in addressing the Notre Dame graduating class in June, 1960, stated that freedom could be imperiled "where peoples, worshipping material success, have become emptied of idealism." He further stated, "Peace with justice cannot be attained by peoples where opulence has dulled the spirit, where indifference has supplanted moral and political responsibility."

President Kennedy, during the 1960 presidential campaign, repeatedly stated, "America is sitting on dead center" and "We need to get America moving again."

These words from many varied sectors of our national leadership represent a serious indictment of us both individually and collectively.

Besides the threat from within, we are, of course, confronted by a ruthless adversary whose one expressed purpose is to conquer the world. This is the first time in most of our lives that a foreign power has had the wherewithal to destroy us completely. In view of this peril we must mobilize our best talents, and design a commitment to victory with which we can successfully meet our challenges. This difficult task will require our very best, and for that reason we cannot let recreational pursuits become ends within themselves. Recreation is very important, indeed is essential to a well-balanced life, but it must not become our master, at least not the master of those people who have not reached retirement age. Certainly our senior citizens who have lived rich, abundant lives deserve the very best in recreational experiences, and perhaps these experiences should be ends within themselves. We should not, however, encourage those people who have not reached retirement age to become good bowlers, anglers, or tennis players just

for the sake of mastering a skill. We must go one step further and attempt to develop in them the attitude that by learning these skills they will become not just better bowlers, anglers, or tennis players but better people.

A society can be no stronger than its individual members. If we can equip each person with a recreational activity in which he has some skill and which he will therefore voluntarily seek out for relaxation, the individual will be strengthened and thereby become a more capable and enlightened entity in society. Surely no one would disagree with this. The dignity of man, however, requires that he have some form of gainful employment. Economic demands on people, particularly men, make it imperative that they have a marketable skill which they can perform reasonably well. Most people's success or failure in life depends on what they can do and how well. Recreation then, in relation to work, should serve as an enriching, rewarding experience which reinforces a person in his vocation; but it must not become his reason for existence.

Any discussion of leisure and recreation must necessarily be linked with economics. But Marx's economic interpretation of history, which asserts that man is nothing but an economic animal with economic needs and economic wants, is grossly oversimplified and furthermore is wholly inadequate in analyzing man's needs. Man is indeed an economic being. But he is also more. He is a social being with social needs, a psychological being with psychological needs, and as Aristotle points out, a political being with political needs. More importantly, he is a spiritual being with spiritual needs. These individual but inter-related needs of man all require nourishment. Recreation, when used constructively, can make a vital and wholesome contribution to each of these areas.

Economically, recreation can strengthen people by providing them with a wholesome outlet for pent-up emotions which may accumulate at the office or factory. It offers a welcome change from the pressures of work and sends a person back to his job refreshed.

Recreation develops people socially by providing opportunities for informal gatherings such as bridge parties or backyard cookouts.

Through such gatherings people meet new friends, discuss new ideas, and consequently broaden the base of their social circles.

Psychologically, recreation can develop individuals by encouraging them to gain some skill in a leisure-time activity. Thereby, they will experience growth in the important quality of self-realization and consequently strengthen the total concept they have of themselves.

Politically, recreation can develop people by encouraging responsible living, tolerance, and respect for the feelings of others. It can also serve as an effective laboratory for learning those skills which are necessary to function in a democracy.

The Church for many centuries opposed recreation. It has, however, in recent years realized the positive aspects which may be derived from leisure time. It is not uncommon now to find churches fostering extensive social and recreational programs.

C. C. Burns, writing in *Leisure in The Modern World*, states that, "Civilization may depend for its roots upon the way in which work is done, but it depends for its finest flower upon the use of leisure." Recreation, then, when taken in the abstract, is neither good nor bad. Its desirability in a culture is determined by the extent to which it is integrated with the more important outcomes of that culture.

Today we enjoy a prosperity undreamed of by earlier economic thinkers. The American society of the twentieth century is a far cry from the dismal world painted by Malthus and Ricardo. Our technical know-how has enabled us to produce more in less time and consequently more leisure has been made available to our citizens. This does not mean, however, that we have arrived. There is still other great business to transact.

Nor has our ability to mass produce been without its ill effects. Automation and industrialization have resulted in many jobs which are inherently mechanical, routing, and consequently somewhat dull. A person who finds himself in this situation has a very difficult time satisfying his innate desire to be creative; a desire closely related to what W. I. Thomas calls the need for "new experience." This need Thomas lists as one of man's four basic wishes.

Where in our society today can a person best satisfy this need? A man must conform to the requirements of his job, not because he

chooses to, but because the assembly line typically does not present opportunities to be original and creative. The assembly line is present in our country, however, because it is more efficient to mass produce and because business and industry are geared primarily to profits and payrolls. Recreation and leisure may well be the last hope for many of our people to be creative and participate in new experiences.

Davis Riesman, writing in *The Lonely Crowd*, says the thesis that men are created free and equal is both true and misleading. Men are created free and different. It is only when they seek to become like one another that they lose their self-identity. Men can be different in their recreational pursuits when perhaps they could not be so in their vocational pursuits. Whether he be a week-end painter deeply engrossed in sketching a crude landscape or an amateur skin diver exploring the depths of an unknown lake, the most important thing is not what the individual does for the activity, but what the activity does for the individual. If his temporary journey into a chosen interest does nothing more than return a person to his job eager and with renewed vigor, then the time has been well spent.

If the disciplines of physical education and recreation do not seek to develop in people the concept that recreation should be a creative, enriching experience, then they have violated one of their fundamental responsibilities. We must all, tradesmen and professional alike, synthesize our talents with a common purpose which is to establish and perpetuate a lasting world peace under international law—a peace in which each individual has an opportunity to express his unique personality in the way he sees fit. Leisure and recreation can make a very distinct and valuable contribution to this lofty aim by being the seedbed of creative activity. Cultural mediocrity and moral degeneration are the inevitable results when leisure becomes nothing more than merely time for vicarious participation and unlimited consumption. The real index of the vitality of a society is the degree to which the citizens become involved in that society's total business—involved as citizen-participants and not merely as citizen consumers. Recreation, with its vast wholesome potential, is a vital part of our society's total business. It is therefore incumbent upon each of us to develop “worthy uses” for our “leisure time.”

Liberty for the Liberal Studies

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Affords this art no greater miracle?

—Marlowe, “Dr. Faustus”

Throughout the time in which many of us have had a part in the business of higher education, all liberal learning has been afflicted with a compulsive desire to be scientific. The time-honored exercises of the intellect, no doubt, had brought some genuine satisfactions and had produced a sort of excellence. But they could not “raise the wind or rend the clouds.” The modern philologist, philosopher or historian has well understood the vexation of Marlowe’s learned Dr. Faustus. The traditional arts, for all their merit, left him “. . . still but Faustus and a man.”

The scholars and teachers of the humanities in the 20th century have seemed to covet a Faustian shortcut to authority and influence. They have not, of course, been motivated by the crude egoism of Faustus. They have, one must suppose, been honestly persuaded that the scientific purpose is the highest purpose that can inspire scholarship. They have also, one suspects, been in some part disarmed critically by the enormous prestige of the scientific method. The product of scientific study was so tangible, so prodigious, so decisive in human affairs it was hard to argue with it. The productivity of pure reason, of imagination, was much harder to demonstrate. The scientific method was evidently, in Pope’s phrase, “discovered, not devised,” and its applicability seemed universal.

Thus it was that the liberal studies progressively, steadily came under the influence of this prestigious means to knowledge. If the method did not always fit the subject in hand, or fit it but awkwardly, then the subject must be made to fit the method. This actually is what happened on a great scale as non-scientific, non-technical, non-profes-

sional education largely lost its historic zeal to cultivate in a new fascination with the challenge to investigate and explore.

And so it happened that what may be broadly thought of as the humanities committed themselves to the study of life as quantity. There was a tacit assumption that the problem of life's quality works itself out automatically with the growth of natural knowledge. As the product of scholarly investigation has grown, the product of imagination and judgment has shrunk. A fantastic accumulation of scholarly material in graduate theses lies largely uninterpreted and unused. It is in the main without influence on contemporary thought or the common life. Unlike the data of studies in the natural sciences which are alight with meaning for and are avidly perused by every scientist whose interests they touch, the products of research in literature and philosophy and history do not appear to be in great demand or to be comparably serviceable to the province of learning to which they were delivered.

The melancholy results of liberal learning's apostasy from its historic business to the investigative activity in which it has been intensively engaged for a generation may be seen in the deterioration of the honor and authority which philosophy, history, letters and the allied arts once enjoyed. As a result of the perversion of these studies contemporary culture lost a resource which it sorely misses in the present crisis of the world's life. Sadly diminished in their powers of insight, criticism, value discrimination and prophecy, the humanities can give little help. Their imagination having shrunk to the dimensions of their undertakings, they are helpless to see large issues in clear philosophic perspective. The moral conviction that once animated, the principles that once unified their effort have become attenuated. It is hard to believe in their vision as being any clearer than the popular view.

The method which had empowered science did not empower literature or philosophy. The quantitative method in philology treated literature as matter, which it is not, and neglected it as spirit, which it is. Scholarship has grown increasingly remote from the heart and life of literature. In graduate schools and in undergraduate colleges as well, the literary experience now is largely a technical experience. The intellectual aridity of the graduate thesis need not be argued. The undergraduate term paper in literature is too often the English Ph.D.

thesis writ small. As such it has done an undescribed amount of mischief in all undergraduate education, but most lamentably in the humanities. This paper substitutes small matters for great matters, a decorous preoccupation with literary "materials" for a memorable immersion in the awesome events of human life as these are recreated and relumined by the literary artist. Besides making a virtue of lifelessness, the documented library paper has proved itself a great debaser of language. It can not only blunt all feeling for English that is alive and hard and clear, but it often actually encourages and confirms a low taste for a pretentious, juiceless patois that is pathetically mistaken to be the language of learning.

All this is a great pity. The college student who has not fallen in love with some book or author or vehemently rejected the vision of life in another has not known books as they wait to be known. If he has not sometimes been made temporarily uncomfortable in disillusion or has not been moved by prospects outshining all he had ever glimpsed before in his young life, then he has not travelled in the "realms of gold." If some thing or somebody has not given his puerile sympathies a shock so that he has grown a little in the strength of feeling to sense another's trouble as well as his joy, then he has not had a tuition of the spirit without which instruction is worse than useless. If he has not experienced perfection of craftsmanship in such a way as to make him, without thinking, mend his speech and his thought he has missed what ought to be a major blessing of the liberal arts. If he has not enjoyed and understood a cleanly, virile, honest English in such a way as to be forever immunized against pretentiously void, tawdry or conceited language, or the cant of minds unsure of themselves or their matter, then his study has not been liberal or liberating. It makes no difference how skillful he may be with footnotes and all the accoutrements of the research paper.

The liberal studies have lost intensity and profundity. They have lost the passion for quality without which they are nothing. They have a dry spirit. There does not emanate from the learned societies anything resembling a mood of deep concern for the world and its people. Frail is the sense of the cultural consequence of scholarship, to say nothing of its moral consequence.

Here a comparison between the humanities and other fields of learning is revealing. The law has had besides an ideal of justice, a will to make it prevail. It is no accident that some of the greatest conceptions of our time have been legal conceptions, translated by legal means into public benefactions. In art and music, where the research idea has not swept all other ideas away before it, there is today imagination and productivity. These arts are compelling a wide attention not only because of their often interesting or even sometimes shocking inventiveness, but also because of the range and earnestness of their feeling and even their moral vision. A repentant higher science now exhibits a deep feeling about the hard meaning of the new natural knowledge for the race of mankind and for the dearly won product of its long history. There is a new ethical sensitivity. A growing wonder and a growing humility are converging on a point where there is wisdom.

Liberal learning suffers because it made an end of a means. It was a means of limited utility to begin with. The discipline of scholarly investigation never dispensed with the need for criticism. It never provided a substitute for imagination. In literature it never did and it never could give something better than what Anatole France called "an adventure of the soul among masterpieces." It might serve well to get at the facts of a literary matter, but it could never show the meaning of those facts. It could not lead to the first order of happiness with books or ideas. It could not cultivate taste or judgment. It could not draw out that which is original and exercise it. It demanded scrutiny, an unremitting doubt, a chronic tentativeness of mind. It never improved the intimacy between the artist and the scholar, but did in fact widen the distance between them until they are now nearly total strangers.

The modern Faustus of the liberal arts who scorned to be merely a man, sought to command miracles upon the world. Now he is troubled. The term of his indulgence may be drawing to a close. That he has lost much of the respect he once enjoyed is painfully evident. Society in its confusion and anxiety is not turning to him for prophetic wisdom and moral guidance. He is following, not leading. He is thinking the Age's thoughts after it. Bearing the image of the culture to which he

has increasingly conformed he shares its confusion about values. He shares its fear of affirmation, and also its weariness with disorder. He shares its despair in the contemplation of the way ahead, as far, that is, as he can see it. For his long preoccupation with technical detail has shortened his vision. He is a diligent student of other men's experience. He attends to their prophecies, and he studies and compares and reports them in good order. But he has none of his own.

It is not too late for liberal learning to recover a lost respect. It is not too late for it to stir a public confidence in its character and move men to rely on that character as a warranty of wisdom. Men today trust their knowledge far more than they trust themselves. Humane learning may reasonably hope to help them to selves they can trust. It may reasonably hope to help them to freedom from the fear of themselves which makes much new knowledge a new worry. It might hope to teach them that there is a way of increasing knowledge without increasing sorrow.

How can this be? It is easier to say with assurance how it cannot. It cannot come out of an intensified veneration of knowledge for its own sake. The dictum that knowledge is for its own sake is a tiresome cliché. A little learning may be a dangerous thing, but if it is a little learning at work in the world and cherished for the work it does, it is far safer than a great learning that has no care for the world nor any concern about its own meaning in the life of men. Knowledge for its own sake? Such a candlelight sentiment has no relation to the facts of life. It has nothing to do with a sadder but wiser learning taking up again, with a new humility and earnestness, service to the common good. Knowledge is always for something beyond itself. It is for growth's sake, for hope's sake, for pity's sake, for dreams' sake. And the knowledge we seek and seek to make wanted and loved is not a fastidious knowledge for an intellectual elite. Liberal learning began to lose its way in the first place because it had built for itself a lordly pleasure house wherein its chief delight was a contemplation of its own treasure. Its present low estate may well be a judgment upon it for its callow attempt to find its life and its worth apart from the vulgar world.

The first business of liberal learning will be to recover a lost sense

of its own identity. It must know itself and respect itself. It is not science, but it is not, therefore, an anachronism in the modern world. The humanities must learn to exclaim with Whitman:

Hurrah for positive science! Long live exact demonstration!

But they must also declare with the poet, and mean it:

Your facts are useful, and yet they are not my dwelling,
I but enter by them to the area of my dwelling.

Non-scientific, non-technical, non-professional learning in our time has been too much intimidated by raw fact. Facts, it has seemed to feel, are safe only in some sort of scientific confinement. Actually it is thought and art and human intercourse that domesticate and beautify facts. The philosopher may often be a better fact tamer than the chemist. The poet sings the wonder and beauty of fact as these may be unguessed at by the psychologist. The chaos of facts in a man's or a nation's life may by the chronicler's art become an instructive and inspiring story.

Liberal learning if it is to become a great resource of a culture in need will be obstinately, volubly idealistic. Scholarship will not be the area of its dwelling. It will but enter by scholarship to the area of its dwelling. It will not let civilization forget its ideals, nor spare it the sharpest censure when it inclines to do so. It will have a delight in excellence of thought and conduct. Its master passion will be to make an ideal of life a fact of life as well.

These purposes, loved and served, will make all things new. In the life of the studies "worthy of free men" there will be new liberty. In their work there will be new joy.

Functional Reading: A Point of View

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“Miss Smith, my dad says you don’t need to try to teach me to read. He says that before I’m grown a machine will be invented to do all my reading for me.” These are the words of one six-year-old to his teacher on his first day of school this fall. And they do not seem as far-fetched today as they might have seemed only a few years ago. We have come almost to the point of expecting the impossible to be done by means of some automated gadget.

While we do not know what tomorrow will bring in the way of scientific communication miracles, all our cues from the past indicate that reading will continue to increase rather than to diminish, both in its importance and in the amount of it that will need to be done. This is true both for the child in school and for the adult in modern society.

When talking movies became an accomplished fact, much was written and said about how they would reduce the amount of reading and the necessity for reading. The advent of the radio brought the same sort of pronouncements. TV revived the same predictions. But, in each of these situations, the predictions were wrong. In fact, just the opposite has been true. Even with TV, studies of children’s reading have shown that more of it, not less, is being done. And this really should not be surprising to those who know something of how and why children read and learn to read. From a functional point of view, we probably should expect them to read more and to read better for seeing TV.

Today, as has been true for many years, most specialists in reading consider the mental-functional aspects of reading to be of more significance than the mechanical-sensory aspects. They are in agreement that the mechanical-sensory skills are important but are not ends in themselves. Rather, they are means contributing to the attainment of functional reading.

Throughout the United States there is presently much interest in and

emphasis upon word analysis skills in the teaching of reading. There is also considerable accompanying confusion among both teachers and parents with relation to how much emphasis ought to be put on certain aspects of these skills, and especially as to the timing of that emphasis. At least some of the confusion is due directly to the fact that the great amount of research in reading has pointed the way in rather rapid fashion to more valid techniques, BUT that applications of this research in actual classroom situations have ranged from none to much in individual schools across the country. Undoubtedly there are still some schools in which little change has taken place in the teaching of reading in the past hundred years. There are certainly others which have kept pace closely with research. And, there are others at all stages in-between. Some resulting confusion is, therefore, understandable.

Be that as it may, there is no question but that currently much effort is being given to that aspect of reading which we call word identification and recognition. They are important, and they do need to be taught well and to be learned well.

The fact is, however, that calling words correctly is not the end and all of reading. It is NOT, in fact, reading.

Dolch presents three definitions of reading: 1. The expert's definition: "Reading is imagining, thinking, and feeling about ideas and thoughts made from past experiences that are suggested by perception of printed words."¹ 2. The learner's definition: "Reading is (1) recognizing most of the words, (2) guessing or working out the others, (3) getting the meaning, and (4) then discussing the meaning in a class situation."² 3. A child's mistaken definition [and Dolch may be optimistic in limiting it to children]: "Reading is saying what is in the book."³

We shall return to the third definition later. The second differs from the first mainly in that it describes the way through which the first is acquired. Reading is thinking and feeling. Reading is concerned with the higher mental processes, such as reasoning, interpreting, organizing, problem solving, generalizing, and predicting. It is an active mental

¹ Edward W. Dolch, *Psychology and Teaching of Reading*. Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press, 1951. p. 16.

² *Ibid.*, p. 19.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 23.

and emotional process, not merely a passive, physical one. McKee says, “. . . you read, not only with your eyes, but with your experiences, with what you have seen, heard, done, tasted, smelled, felt, and with what has happened to you; with your emotions, including your hopes and fears, your likes and dislikes; with your prejudices and your ideals; with your observations and the conclusions you have drawn from them.”⁴

This is functional reading. It is reading for use. Its central theme is meaning—and without meaning, no matter how well the words are called, reading is not taking place.

True enough, then, we do need to be concerned about the mechanics of reading. But we need to be concerned also that in the effort to come to grips with the mechanics we do not lose sight of the functional aspects, which are, in reality, reading. We need to be concerned that any skill taught at any level is taught in the context of meaning. Reading becomes one of the communication skills and arts only when the writer and the reader are able to communicate with each other through the medium of printed or written symbols.

If reading is functional, it results in the formation of concepts. There is rather general agreement that concepts are formed through generalization and differentiation of percepts. Thus, perceptions become major ingredients of concepts. Adequacy and accuracy of concepts are directly dependent on adequacy and accuracy of perceptions.

All we know of the world about us and the specifics of our contacts with it come through our senses. So, stimuli received from our environment by the receiving mechanisms called sense organs are known as sensations. And that is all they are, just sensations, until the stimuli are carried to the brain as neural impulses. There interpretation takes place—and this interpretation of sensation we call perception. So, in reading, printed symbols (words) are seen (received as stimuli) by the eyes, carried to the brain as nerve impulses, and are interpreted (given a meaning, given many meanings, given no meaning).

This act is not complete as a reading act, however, until there is some sort of reaction to the perception—until, in the words of Dolch's first definition, “we imagine, think, feel about ideas and thoughts made

⁴ Paul McKee, *The Teaching of Reading in the Elementary School*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1948.

from past experiences that are suggested by perception of symbols we call words.”

It becomes quite apparent that the higher mental processes, the emotions, and direct and vicarious background experiences are of fundamental importance to perception, to concept formation, and thus, to functional reading. So important are they, as a matter of fact, that although the dictionary and the encyclopedia may be a part of them, neither can become a substitute for them.

But what about the child who comes to have Dolch’s third definition of reading: “Reading is saying what is in the book.” Such reading is certainly not functional, if it can be said to be reading at all. It certainly does not lead to the formation of new concepts nor to the broadening of those already held.

A person holding this definition may be able to read aloud (call words) accurately and smoothly without having any idea of the meaning of the words. Maybe he has learned that smooth oral reading satisfies his teacher. Maybe he has learned that the teacher wants him to answer questions in the words of the book. Maybe he has been exposed to so many new and strange concepts in such a short period of time that he is lucky to be able to use the right “book” words in the right places often enough to achieve a “passing grade.”

Just as some children learn to demand meaning in their reading, so some others learn to say what is in the book without attaching any meaning to the words. Now, if these things are learned, it must certainly follow that there are materials and procedures which will encourage the child to be a demander of meaning and discourage him from being a wordcaller.

Most experts in the field suggest the importance of opportunities for wide reading of easy material that will allow the child to react positively to it. Such material, geared to the peculiar interest of the child, uses familiar terms (or, at least, a minimum of unfamiliar terms) to explain in enough detail to give the vicarious experience necessary for adequate meaning.

Radio, TV, motion pictures, and personal appearances of people in the community who have “been there” or “done things” can be of tremendous help in building backgrounds and developing concepts.

Good though they are, there are limits to the direct experiences teachers can afford children.

We should realize, too, that "Rome wasn't built in a day." Is it better to "cover" a lot of pages and leave the child with little but vague generalities and misconceptions; or is it better to go more slowly, to learn fewer concepts but to learn them accurately, to allow the child the chance to develop the habit of demanding meaning in his reading? Is it more important that we "go through" a particular book in a specified period of time, or that we go at the pace which allows the child to *learn*?

Covering pages often comes to be literally that—covering one page with the next one so fast as to make it appear not to be there at all. If we expect a child to develop the habit of demanding meaning, we must make the time he has to have available to him. Some children will need very little time; some will need much. Time should be a function of the child, not of the teacher or of a course of study.

In any teaching-learning situation, perhaps the single most important prediction of success is the conviction on the part of the teacher that something is vitally important. If the teacher *believes* that it is more important for the child to become a demander of meaning than that he learn to call words, she will make of the teaching-learning situation whatever will contribute most to this end. By her own example, by the time which she sets up in her schedule for the day, by the demands which she places on the student for adequacy and accuracy of meaning she demonstrates her conviction.

Any teacher who believes strongly enough that she should help students in any particular way will have an inner compulsion to give such help. Her enthusiasm will be "catching." Tricks and gadgets cannot substitute for these things. Here, in reality, may be one of the distinguishing marks of the truly great teacher.

Library Training in the High School

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With the passing of the "textbook course" the library has taken on a new significance in the educational processes of the college and university. Modern instructional concepts have placed an ever increasing emphasis upon library facilities and at the same time have made the student subject to what may seem a forbidding, inscrutable organization. In order to get the most out of the whole college experience, in order to survive, he must have a knowledge of the use of the library. Unless the freshmen possesses this skill when he enters college he may attain it too late.

To minimize this deficiency the college has instituted the library orientation course—a stop gap measure designed to relieve an unnecessarily difficult situation. It is not for the college to provide the skills required for entering its program. That responsibility rests with the high school where the student gains his educational foundations and may develop these abilities in the natural pursuit of the curriculum. More effective library training at that level would greatly relieve the pressures upon the student in his adjustment to the college program.

There are three basic library skills the entering college freshman should possess to enable him to begin his venture into higher education on a sound basis. He should be able to locate library materials through the card catalog with a degree of proficiency that would allow him to expand his intellectual horizons through independent study. Secondly, he should have a basic knowledge of the proper manner in which to use books for purposes of reference. The remaining ability, and the one he has least chance of developing while in high school, concerns the intelligent use of periodicals.

A recent survey among 511 first semester freshmen at Louisiana State University in New Orleans reveals that eighty-three percent received library training in high school. In general this training was mainly devoted to the mechanics of the card catalog. Regardless of

previous instruction only thirty-nine percent were able to make any effective use of the catalog. There was no appreciable difference in the abilities of those having had library training and those who had not. Accordingly we may conclude that the training received by this group was, in the main, ineffectual.

A program devoted exclusively to the microscopic study of card forms and the memorization of classification schemes is largely a waste of time and a burden on the teacher as well as the student. If the student retains this knowledge the card form is hardly more than a curiosity and the classification system is reduced to a method of bypassing the catalog in a time-wasting search of the shelves. This is not to imply that the student should not be provided with an understanding of the mechanics of the system. Rather, it is to emphasize that the important element is not the study of physical aspects but the application of principles. A basic understanding of subject headings and the location of items through their use of infinitely more value than the memorization of minutia. Actual practice in locating material by subject will prove invaluable.

Proper "book habits" are equally as important as knowing how to locate items in the card catalog. Far too many questions go unanswered through the inept use of a reference book. By way of illustration let us consider the encyclopedia. This reference work, common to all high school libraries, can improve the quality of high school work and, in addition, provide the basis for the use of specialized references in the future. However, its effectiveness is limited by the student's understanding of its use. Although few students complete their high school careers without having used the encyclopedia repeatedly, only three percent of those surveyed were aware that the encyclopedia had an index and cross references. Only two students indicated that these features were called to their attention by their high school teachers. It is difficult to ascribe any degree of efficiency to a student's use of a work when he is unaware of two of its most important features.

A knowledge of the use of periodical indexes is another highly desirable skill. Their proper use may greatly enhance the educational value of the library's subscriptions, providing it is able to maintain an organized periodical back file. Furthermore, the student body

would have the opportunity to acquire a sorely needed ability. This, however, is the ideal situation and is admittedly not practicable in the average high school library. Although the cost of an index such as *The Abridged Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* is not prohibitive the school library often lacks the facilities for maintaining the file. Progress in this area is further impeded by the teachers, many at the college level, who fail to appreciate the immense value of periodical materials. Nevertheless the teacher or librarian who prepares his students for the use of these materials has rendered them a valuable service.

The question arises as to who should be responsible for library instruction in the schools. At the present time, slightly over fifty per cent of this work is directed by the English teacher, rather than the librarian. Such an arrangement often results from the presence of a "library section" in the English text rather than from a specific delegation of responsibility. The wisdom of such an arrangement, in those schools having a trained librarian, is questionable. The English teacher should not be expected to perform the function of the librarian.

Ideally library training is conducted by the school librarian who should be the best qualified person on the faculty for such instruction. This is more easily accomplished if the library is not used as a study hall and the librarian as a study hall keeper. Both situations are deplorable and greatly curtail the effectiveness of the library program. The size of the faculty often demands that the librarian serve as a teacher. This in itself need not seriously handicap the library program if the library facilities are available at all times and the students are equipped with a degree of training that will enable them to function independently. In no case, however, should the librarian be expected to conduct effective instruction in an atmosphere closely resembling "kiddies' day" at the county fair.

Some Needs of Children of Intermediate-Grade Age

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In the literature of child growth and development, children's needs and children's characteristics are rarely separated from each other, perhaps because needs are but one kind of characteristic. In order to discover children's needs in the literature, therefore, it is necessary to consider the broader area of children's characteristics in general.

An exception to the usual commingling of characteristics and needs is the listing by Rath and Burrell¹ of eight emotional needs of children in a small publication devoted exclusively to needs. The needs they list are: for belonging, for achievement, for economic security, for freedom from fear, for love and affection, for freedom from intense feelings of guilt, for sharing and self-respect, and for understanding.

In many other writings, however, needs and characteristics are considered and presented more or less together. The needs, however, can easily be inferred, as it is virtually impossible to consider the characteristics of children without directly or indirectly considering their needs.

The Literature of the Intermediate-grade age

It is comparatively recently that those concerned with child growth and development have turned their attention to children of intermediate-grade age. Redl² noted this lack nearly two decades ago. "Research . . . with very few exceptions, has skipped this period. . . . In short, research has discreetly left this phase alone, and has retired from it . . ."

¹ Rath, Louis E. and Anna Porter Burrell, *Do's and Don't's of the Needs Theory*. Bronxville, New York: Modern Education Service, 1951.

² Redl, Fritz, "Pre-Adolescents—What Makes Them Tick?" *Child Study*, XXX (Winter, 1943-44).

For some years following Redl's statement, a few studies were made and a few books were written, but there was still a dearth of material dealing with this age span, as Blair and Burton³ pointed out:

The growth and development of children during later childhood has not been adequately studied. The literature in elementary education and in child psychology shows clearly that the age from nine until puberty is the "forgotten" period of childhood. It is a no man's land as far as research is concerned.

Blair and Burton were among the first to attempt to bring together all the available data in this field. They say of their work: "The method of this study was to explore the available scientific literature in all those fields which deal with the child from ages nine to twelve." They claim validity for their findings with the following statement: "The fact that two groups of workers, the Chicago Committee and the present authors, working independently, reach many of the same conclusions about these children seems to substantiate the findings of both groups of workers." This statement follows their presentation of "A Tentative List of Characteristics of the Period," a kind of summary or set of generalizations the purpose of which ". . . is to bring out those facts which seem to distinguish these children from the immediately younger and older groups."

Other writers, both before and after Blair and Burton, are in basic agreement with the Tentative List, although not all of them use the same terms. The 1950 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development⁴ refers to *developmental stages* which it conceives as *tasks to be performed*; while Havighurst⁵ refers to *developmental tasks*. What Havighurst refers to as achieving personal independence, the Yearbook describes as the child's freeing himself from the primary identification with adults; and these both correspond with Blair and Burton's heading, "Rejection of adult standards underlies much of their behavior."

³ Blair, Arthur Witt and William H. Burton, *Growth and Development of the Preadolescent*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1951.

⁴ The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*. Washington: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1950.

⁵ Havighurst, Robert J., *Developmental Tasks and Education*, second edition. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1952.

Some writers break this age group into year-by-year divisions;⁶ others include ages eight and twelve;⁷ and still others separate age nine from the pre-adolescent years.⁸ This last division is confirmed in the present writers' own experience: the grouping of fourth-grade children with fifth- and sixth-grade children in an enrichment program in their school system was largely discontinued upon the teachers' recommendation, which was based upon their experience with this spread in ages: the nine-year-olds just did not seem ready for serious work with older children.

Regardless of the specific arrangement by ages, writers show general agreement on the characteristics of children of ages nine to eleven. Blair and Burton's detailed list is substantiated in whole or in considerable part by the writers cited above and by others, including Lewis,⁹ whose summary is the most recent.

A number of the workers in the field have shown concern not only with the discovery and listing of the characteristics of this age group but also with examining the implications of these findings for the educational program. In general terms, Olson states:¹⁰

A lush environment from the point of view of child growth will have in it a variety of types of experiences and many levels of difficulty in materials and experiences of the same type. Each child's pattern of growth is such that he is stronger in some capacities than in others. He also enjoys and seeks some experiences more than others.

He continues: "Modern schools give children opportunities for participation in the determination of plans and in the making of choices. Such experiences are part of a design intended to give children practice in ways of behaving in a democracy."

Lee and Lee maintain that ". . . the school must furnish worthwhile activities in its curriculum that meet the interests and needs of the child while he is in school and which may form a basis and direction

⁶ United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, *Your Child from Six to Twelve*. Washington: Children's Bureau, Publication 324, 1949.

⁷ Lee, J. Murray and Dorris May Lee, *The Child and His Curriculum*, revised edition. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1950.

⁸ Jenkins, Gladys Goodner, Helen Schachter, and William W. Bauer, *These Are Your Children*. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1949.

⁹ Lewis, Gertrude M., *Educating Children in Grades Four, Five, and Six*. Washington: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, 1958.

¹⁰ Olson, Willard, *Child Development*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1949.

for his out-of-school activities in the gang.”

They further state: “Existing subjects do not necessarily constitute the best organization of pupil experiences.”

Dealing specifically with children of intermediate-grade age, Lewis writes:

The . . . goals for education in grades 4, 5, and 6 can be reduced to a single objective: to help children meet the developmental tasks imposed upon them by their innate growth drives and by the society in which they live; namely, to grow up capably and happily as individuals and as thoughtful, contributing members of the society.

To accomplish this task it is necessary:

To utilize for motivation in all desirable directions the overwhelming desire of children, ages 9-11, to be active, to be accepted, to make friends among peers, to become more independent of adults, to explore, to make and do, to acquire values to live by.

To provide environmental influences which motivate good physical, social-emotional, and intellectual growth.

To understand and utilize the differences among children to make it possible for each child to grow and to learn the understandings and skills necessary for constructive citizenship in our culture.

Finally, Blair and Burton follow their list of characteristics with a list of general principles for guiding the development of children of this age group, principles which have considerable implication for the elementary school program.

The Needs of Children of Intermediate-grade Age

The needs of children of intermediate-grade age are summarized in the writing of Blair and Burton, whose compilation was drawn from all the research available in all the fields dealing with children up to the time of their study, which was published in 1951. Lewis performed a similar task, with publication in 1958. Examination of the literature prior to the work of Blair and Burton reveals that they succeeded in bringing together into a definitive whole the scattered attempts of their predecessors to consider the characteristics and needs of children of this age span. The same appraisal may be made of Lewis's work.

For this reason, the list of needs which follows draws heavily upon

the work of Blair and Burton and of Lewis. Other authors' contributions are found in the list, but none to the extent of these three. Whether the needs in the list were specifically stated or whether they were implied, as was true in some cases, Blair and Burton on the one hand, and Lewis on the other, seem to agree as to the needs.

Not all of the needs are the exclusive characteristics of children of intermediate-grade age. For example, children of all ages (and adults, too, for that matter) have the need for belonging, and the need for success and a feeling of achievement. This fact, however, does not disqualify these needs from being very important needs of children of ages nine to eleven.

Lewis seems to be in fundamental agreement with Blair and Burton on the following needs:

1. Physical activity.
2. Increasing independence from adult control.
3. Opportunity to work sometimes in groups composed entirely of members of one's own sex.
4. Satisfaction of one's curiosity about the local environment and far-away places.
5. Concrete, factual materials, information, and readings.
6. Opportunity to use the imagination.
7. Working together in groups of like interests.
8. Making satisfactory adjustments to adults and peers.
9. Self-expression in arts and crafts.
10. Opportunity to make choices, to have a part in planning and decision-making.
11. Success, or a feeling of achievement.
12. Belonging to a group.
13. Opportunity to follow worthwhile interests.

A few other needs are mentioned by other authors. Baxter, Lewis, and Cross¹¹ and the Curriculum Committee for Health, Physical Education, and Safety in the Elementary School¹² consider another need important:

¹¹ Baxter, Bernice, Gertrude M. Lewis, and Gertrude M. Cross, *The Role of Elementary Education*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1952.

¹² Curriculum Committee for Health, Physical Education, and Safety in the Elementary School, *Child Growth and Development, Characteristics and Needs*. A Chart, Washington: Public Schools of the District of Columbia, 1946.

14. The need for periods of relief from mental activity.

While this need is related, perhaps, to the need for physical activity, and while it undoubtedly must involve physical activity, it is none the less a separate and distinct need: physical activity for its own sake derives from a need quite different from that of physical activity as a relief from mental activity.

Jenkins, Schachter, and Bauer, Lewis, and Rath all agree on another need:

15. The need for love and affection.

Baxter, Lewis, and Cross and Rath list another:

16. The need for sharing and for self-respect.

In addition to the needs in Rath's list included in the sixteen needs noted above, there remain:

17. The need for economic security.

18. The need for freedom from fear.

19. The need for freedom from excessive feelings of guilt.

20. The need for understanding.

Finally, the comparatively recent recognition of a need heretofore not given much attention but now frequently mentioned supplies the last item on the list:

21. The need to work with children of age levels other than one's own.

Educators in growing numbers are showing concern for this need, in their writings, in programs initiated or directed by them, or in both. Among those recognizing or implying the existence of this need are Loomis,¹³ Foley,¹⁴ Hamilton and Rehwoldt,¹⁵ Goodlad and Ander-

¹³ Loomis, Mary Jane, "The Right Child in the Right Classroom," *N.E.A. Journal*, XLVIII (September, 1959) pp. 17-18.

¹⁴ Foley, Alice L., "Blueprint for the Quality Elementary School," *New York State Education*, XLVII (November, 1959) pp. 10-11, 28.

¹⁵ Hamilton, Warren Wilson and Walter Rehwoldt, *An Analysis of Some of the Effects of Interage and Intergrade Grouping in the Elementary School*. Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The University of Southern California, Berkeley, 1957.

son,¹⁶ Carlson,¹⁷ Carmichael and Turney,¹⁸ Stratemeyer and others,¹⁹ and Beauchamp.²⁰

At least one specific enrichment program has been established to contribute to meeting some of the needs in the list above; and the school system which includes as a basic part of its program, either formally or informally, the recognition of children's needs, and makes every possible attempt to meet them, cannot help but enrich the learning experiences of its pupils.

¹⁶ Goodlad, John I. and Robert H. Anderson, *The Non-graded Elementary School*. New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1959.

¹⁷ Carlson, Wesley H., "Interage Grouping," *Educational Leadership*, XV (March, 1958), pp. 363-368.

¹⁸ Carmichael, Bennie and David Turney, "Research and Individualization," *Educational Leadership*, XVII (November, 1959), pp. 96-101.

¹⁹ Stratemeyer, Florence B., Hamden L. Forkner, Margaret G. McKim, and A. Harry Passow, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*, revised edition. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957, p. 437.

²⁰ Beauchamp, Mary, "How Should We Look at Levels—from the Psychology of Learning," *Childhood Education*, XXXII (December, 1955), p. 167.

PEABODY BIMONTHLY BOOKNOTES

Selected Professional and Cultural Books for a Teacher's Library

JANUARY, 1962

Booknotes Committee: Susan B. Riley, W. A. FitzGerald, and Norman Frost, Chairman

Secretary to the Committee: Janette Brach

Annotators for this Issue: M. E. Alford, Myrtle Bomar, John E. Brewton, Kenneth Cooper, Mabel Corry, Becky Daughety, Norman Frost, Donald Neville, Louis Nicholas, H. Craig Sipe, Warren I. Titus, Ned L. Warren.

Children's Literature

ALDOUS, ALLAN. *Doctor With Wings*. Criterion, 1961. 126p. \$3.00.

An interesting story about the valuable help the Flying Doctor Service provides in Australia. Young David Locke goes with his father there and in this vast wilderness he learns what the service means to the scattered people of the territory. Will be enjoyed by Junior High students, especially boys.

ANNIXTER, JANE AND PAUL. *Peace Comes to Castle Oak*. Longmans, 1961. 250p. \$3.95.

Set in the present day low country of the South, this is the story of Sump and Cora Claiborne and their family of three children. The trials and tribulations of raising a family make this a warm family novel which will be enjoyed by teenage girls from Junior High up.

BELTING, NATALIE MAREE. *Elves and Elvefolk*. Holt, Rinehart, 1961. 94p. \$3.00.

Folklorist Natalie Belting, known for her previous books *Cat Tales* and *The Moon is a Crystal Ball*, has gathered fifteen tales about Little People from all over the world and re-told them with distinctive national flavor. The Little People are known by many names—elfevolk, korrigans, wagonyingo, leprechauns and are inhabitants of many nations—Italy, Africa, Wales, North America, British Isles, Ireland, Turkey, Polynesia, Scandinavia, Iceland and Brittany.

The tales are enhanced by the drawings of Gordon Laite.

BENNETT, RAINEY. *After the Sun Goes Down*. World Pub., 1961. unp. \$3.00.

This is the delightful story of three owls and what happened to them during one of their wakeful nights when they found a red ribbon belonging to a teddy bear. The illustrations are as gay as they are beautiful. Ages 4-8.

BODEN, HILDA. *Faraway Farm*. McKay, 1961. 135p. \$2.95.

Mrs. Weatherby and her four children, one boy a polio victim, have a difficult time making ends meet in London. When a great uncle dies leaving them a faraway farm in Scotland they find adventures, hard work and satisfaction in making adjustments. For upper grade readers.

BOLTON, CAROLE. *Callahan Girls*. Morrow, 1961. 224p. \$2.95.

Rivalry between two sisters makes the plot for this story. Family life in a small apartment in New York presents many problems to Kate, but none more important than losing one date after another to beautiful blue eyed Peggy. The satisfactory outcome will please junior high school girls.

BRANLEY, FRANKLIN. *A Book of Planets for You*. Crowell, 1961. unp. \$3.50.

Designed for late primary grades, this book is both well written and ably illustrated.

BROCK, EMMA. *Plaid Cow*. Knopf, 1961. 80p. \$2.50.

Five stories of children, each with a rich background of national custom brought from different foreign lands to the one state of Minnesota. The stories are for intermediate grade reading, and are of interest to both boys and girls. There are wonderful samples of the fine people and traditions that have made America great.

BROWN, MARGARET. *Four Fur Feet*. Young Scott, 1961. unpub. \$3.00.

Four Fur Feet is from a collection of Margaret Wise Brown's unpublished poetry. Remy Charlip wanted to do this poem as a picture book when he first saw the collection. But it was not until his third working dummy that he conceived the present brilliant form for the book. Margaret Wise Brown admirers will want to add this book to their collection.

CALHOUN, MARY. *Nine Lives of Homer C. Cat*. Morrow, 1961. unpub. \$2.75.

Homer C. Cat was so proud that he was careless with eight of his nine lives. Children about 4 to 6 will be delighted to find that Homer finally learned his lesson, and that his ninth life was long, useful and happy.

CARSON, JOHN F. *Hotshot*. Farrar, Strauss, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

Although from the wrong side of the tracks Dave York is Hamilton High's star basketball player and is worshipped by his fans. Conflict comes with a coach who over-emphasizes athletics and a physics teacher who helps Dave realize that studies are important for him to become a man. Junior high boys will enjoy this one.

CARTER, ERNEST. *Buses of the World*. Roy, 1961. 143p. \$3.75.

This is an interesting account of the development of the motor bus from the early styles to those being used today, well illustrated by many photographs and charts. Special explanation of various motors and engines. The last chapter takes a look at the future. The writing is interesting and suited to high school reading.

COLMAN, HILA. *Girl from Puerto Rico*. Morrow, 1961. 222p. \$2.95.

Moving from Puerto Rico to New York proved to be a poor exchange for Felicidad, her mother and brother. Here they must live in slums and face distrust and hate instead of Felicidad's dreams of the city. An accurate picture of the problems faced by Puerto Ricans in this country. Recommended for high school girls.

COMMAGER, HENRY STEELE. *Great Constitution*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 128p. \$3.50.

The third of a series of books about great documents which have formed the basis of our American democracy. Commager's newest book for the young is a delightful commentary on the birth of the Great Constitution. The task of "making" a nation by a handful of enlightened federal heroes is the heart of this well written book.

COOMBS, CHARLES. *Bush Flying in Alaska*. Morrow, 1961. 93p. \$2.88.

The bush pilot is a resourceful man. Read how these men contributed to the development of Alaska. Will interest children in the 10-14 ages group.

DAVIS, LAVINIA. *Clown Dog*. Doubleday, 1961. 61p. \$2.75.

Joey and his dog, Clown Dog, moved from his home on the beach to a new home inland and in the country. Getting acquainted in the country was not easy, but Clown Dog solved the problems by finding a fawn in the woods. The story is appealing for lower grades.

DECKER, DUANNE. *Rebel in Right Field*. Morrow, 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

This is an interestingly written worthy addition to the youth sports library. The author presents a human interest story of a boy facing the tasks of becoming a great baseball player. The authentic approach to baseball and its realistic player problems makes this a valuable book for the young athlete or those interested in sports.

DENNIS, MORGAN. *Kitten on the Keys*. Viking, 1961. 43p. \$2.25.

Tommy picked up a lonely, hungry kitten on the docks of one of the Florida keys.

He named it Rusty. Finally, Tommy, with Rusty's help finds a block of silver worth \$491.63. The story stops right there, but most readers 7 to 9 years old will be able to go right on and on.

DE REGNIERS, BEATRICE. *The Little Book*. Walck, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

The Little Book tells for the delight of the pre-school children what happens when a little girl goes for a walk. She meets a cow that says Moo and a pig that says Oink and many others, too. At last she hears someone say Hi and that is best of all. Mrs. de Regniers is author of twelve other books for children but this is the first she has also illustrated.

DOBLER, LAVINIA. *Cyrus McCormick*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 199p. \$2.25.

The life of Cyrus McCormick and his reaper is told for intermediate grade children. Interest is well maintained, and the significance of the reaper is well presented. This is a real aid for the vitalized teaching of the social studies.

DOW, KATHARINE. *My Time of Year*. Walck, 1961. unp. \$2.25.

"Where I live sometimes it's hot and sometimes it's cold and sometimes it's in between. That's what my book is about—what it's like and the things I do in my time of year." This is Katharine Dow's introduction to her charmingly simple book which will fascinate 3 to 5 year olds.

DROWNE, TATIANA. *I Am From Siam*. Pantheon, 1961. unp. \$3.00.

Legend, history and traditions are highlighted in this story of Thailand and her singular breed of Siamese cats.

DUBOIS, THEODORA. *Rich Boy, Poor Boy*. Farrar, Strauss, 1961. 186p. \$2.95.

The summer Janey Murray meets Patrick McGill turns out to be one of the best in her fourteen years. There is suspense and humor as together they solve the mystery of some missing antique buttons, which Patrick is suspected of taking. Entertaining for girls and enough action for some boys, too.

DUNHAM, MONTREW. *Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr.* Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 200p. \$2.25.

This well told story of the boyhood and distinguished career of this great jurist is a distinct contribution to the better teaching of the social studies in the elementary school. Interest is well maintained, and children will be led to a better understanding of law as a needed part of our American way of life.

FRANCIS, HELEN. *Football Flash*. Hastings House, 1961. 128p. \$2.95.

Flash Hunter had problems about playing football with his junior high school group. His father was the new coach at the college nearby, and he was very football conscious but doubted his ability to do a good job. His problems will interest middle elementary readers, and they will be happy to see that he succeeds at last.

HALL, MARJORY. *Whirl of Fashion*. Westminster, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

The hard life and many problems that faced Felicia Larcom made her envy and resent her well-to-do class mates. When the three most popular boys in high school began to rush her, she couldn't help being suspicious. Winning a trip to Paris through a sewing contest was just one of the many things that made her realize how many true friends she actually had. A good lesson for teenagers written in a most interesting way.

HARKINS, PHILIP. *Fight Like A Falcon*. Morrow, 1961. 223p. \$2.95.

Inspired by an Air Force Academy cadet Neal Davis works hard his senior year and enters the academy the following fall. The hazing, which all doolies of freshman must endure, begins and Neal accepts the challenge and learns to fight like a falcon in the classroom and on the football field. Boys in grades 7-9 will enjoy this one.

HOBART, LOIS. *Behind the Walls*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 216p. \$2.95.

Jacquelyn Otis's talents as a teacher are at odds with her desire to enter the field of journalism. Her experiences in the classroom and her summer in Mexico as a journalism student all contribute to her decision

on the best life for her. A delightful and interesting book for teen age girls; sympathetic in the solving of Jacquelyn's problem.

HOYT, HELLEN. *Aloha, Susan*. Doubleday, 1961. 167p. \$2.95.

Set in Hawaii in 1900 this is the story of a twelve year old Susan Brewster who has to spend the year taking care of a three year old boy while her twin brother has all the fun. All the fun that is, until Susan realized the importance of her grown up role and her new responsibilities. Good reading for those in-between twelves everywhere who are beginning to grow up.

JACKSON, CAARY PAUL. *Pro Hockey Comeback*. Hastings House, 1961. 148p. \$2.95.

The story of Marty Burke, college athlete who found the change to pro-hockey very difficult, more so because he was hampered by other players and coaches. His problems and the solutions make a real and exciting story of hockey for the sports fan. Junior high boys and up will enjoy this one.

JAMES, NORMA WOOD. *Bittersweet Year*. Longman's, 1961. 208p. \$3.50.

Kathy Parker grows up and begins to place new values on life and peoples when her father's business develops financial difficulties. Many old misunderstandings that exist in the small town where they move are all straightened out by Kathy, plus the problems in her own life during the seventeenth year. A book to be read and enjoyed by teen age girls.

KEATING, LAWRENCE. *Runner Up*. Westminster, 1961. 202p. \$2.95.

Runner-up is a story that should appeal to any school boy or girl. The author presents a continuous account of how a boy met his various tasks and competitions with himself and his peers. The various sports in a year long program are treated with authority and technical correctness. The true to life obstacles faced by this young person growing up will stir the reader.

KINGMAN, LEE. *Saturday Gang*. Doubleday, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

A delightful humorous story of eleven year old Terry Tibbetts and his Saturday

gang as they persuade the natives of Winisquam, Mass. to let a television company film a show in their midst. Their work with filming the show and helping the police solve a local mystery make this a lively story for grades 5 to 7.

KNIGHT, FRANK. *Last of the Lallow's*. St. Martin's, 1961. 222p. \$3.25.

The 1742 revolution in England forms the colorful background of this moving story. Margaret Lallows, bereft by war of home and family, moves to America to found a new and more peaceful home.

LEWITON, MINA. *Elizabeth and the Young Stranger*. McKay, 1961. 133p. \$2.75.

Having grown up in a small New England town Elizabeth is uncertain at first about being a friend to Andre, a displaced person, because her friend and her father (her mother is dead) do not accept him. Things, however, fall into place and romance grows solving many of the problems. Of interest to girls who need to know that others have problems.

LEYLAND, ERIC. *For Valour*. Roy, 1961. 144p. \$3.00.

Spanning one hundred years of British history this book gives the exploits which earned the Victorian Cross with its simple inscription—for valour—on it. This book will interest all boys considering military service, as well as those who enjoy stories of bravery and heroism.

MAULE, TEX. *The Rookie*. McKay, 1961. 186p. \$3.00.

The story of Brad Thomas, an All-American football quarterback and the problems that confront him when he tries to become a pro-player with the Los Angeles Rams. Very refreshing is the fact that it uses real rather than phony names. High school boys will find this one more to their taste.

NIELSEN, JEAN. *Red Head*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 245p. \$2.95.

Spending the summer in a mining ghost town in Nevada proves to be a time of learning for fifteen year old Suzie Gregg. With the help of her friends, especially

Robin McNair, she matures, learns to understand people and to control her temper which is as fiery as her hair. A delightful and understanding book for teen age girls.

NOBLE, IRIS. *Stranger No More*. Messner, 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

After living in Europe with her father seventeen years Katherine Norman, an American, is sent to San Francisco her senior year to live with her aunt Debra. Katherine finds the people and customs strange, but her many experiences at school with her friends and her aunt make this an interesting novel of a girl on the brink of maturity and love.

O'CONNOR, PATRICK. *Treasure at Twenty Fathoms*. Washburn, 1961. 152p. \$3.00.

The story of sixteen year old Chuck Crawford learning to be a skin-diver, which both fascinates and frightens him. From his guide he learns both the techniques and personal discipline which helps him mature. This book has adventure as well as depth of character and style. Will be of interest to teen age boys.

OGAN, MARGARET AND GEORGE. *Devil Drivers*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 183p. \$2.95.

This book tells of the rough, rigorous, and competitive life of the automobile thrill show drivers and one Bryant Rose who joins their ranks to earn money for his college education. A vivid book in some ways, that will interest junior high boys and up who like books about cars and hot rods.

PONT, CLARICE. *The Immediate Gift*. McKay, 1961. 216p. \$3.25.

This novel for young adults is the story of Heather Demerest who has had a speech block since childhood and who manages to overcome it. The career she chooses is in speech therapy to help others overcome the same difficulty. The romance angle will make it interesting for high school girls.

ROBERTS, ELLIOTT. *Deep Sea, High Mountain*. Little, Brown, 1961. 275p. \$3.75.

In this collection of true stories about real people the author acquaints us with the

little known work of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey. The stories follow the far flung operation of the survey—from the jungles of Honolulu to New York harbor—and will be of interest to boys, especially, who may want to know more about this work.

SCHOLZ, JACKSON. *Center Field Jink*. Morrow, 1961. 220p. \$2.95.

Jerry Connor, center fielder for the New York Bombers, finds himself farmed out to the minor league to mature. What happens after this make a well written and entertaining sports story, filled with humorous dialogue and situations, plus two of Mr. Scholz's better characters. Recommended for high school boys.

SCHOOR, GENE. *Red Schoendienst Story*. Putnam, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

This is another very interesting story of one of the most appealing and most interesting sports figures of our time. Some of baseball's most dramatic moments are pictured here in the highlights of this athlete's career. This is an easily read story and should be of value and interest to all youth with interest in fast moving sports stories.

SHIELDS, RITA. *Cecelia's Locket*. Longmans, 1961. 147p. \$2.95.

Set in San Francisco, around 1910, this story deals with the problem of Cecilia's acceptance of her young step-mother, and vice-versa. They are shown a way to that end by an affectionate, noisy, colorful Italian family in the flat downstairs, who do much to liven up the rather pale situation. Social study background for middle elementary readers, as well as the point of acceptance of family problems.

Shirley Temple's Nursery Tales. Random House, 1961. unpaginated. \$1.00.

Eight well known tales authentic and beautifully illustrated in color. The biggest dollar's worth of delight for children three to six one can find. If Bennett Cerf can get as much reading value per dollar into every book Random House publishes he will be a real human benefactor. He'll have to start by cutting the price of his own books to about a quarter.

SPRAQUE, ROSEMARY. *Fife and Fandango*. Walck, 1961. 244p. \$3.75.

Dona Juanita do Leon, the daughter of an old and distinguished family, found herself in dire need of help for survival. Major Harry Smith, a British officer, asked for permission to marry her even though she was a near stranger. Thus her life changed from the protection she had known at the convent in Madrid to a life full of hardships as she traveled with her husband and the army.

STEINER, CHARLOTTE. *I Am Andy*. Knopf, 1961. unpaginated. \$1.95.

A real picture book, there being no text. Thirteen amusing episodes are shown in a series of pictures as in cartoon sequence for primary and preschool groups. Subjects are well chosen and suited to the level of this age, and the collection can well be used in storytelling and readiness experiences. Recommended.

STOVER, JO ANN. *Why? Because*. McKay, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.95.

Several "whys" are proposed and answers given that will make nursery and kindergarten children chuckle. Then the children may propose other answers equally inconsequential, and equally productive of chuckles.

THAYER, JANE. *Blueberry Pie Elf*. Morrow, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.75.

Children between the ages of four and seven will find amusing this story of how an elf succeeds in getting the people with whom he lives to bake him a blueberry pie.

TITUS, EVE. *Anatole Over Paris*. McGraw-Hill, 1961. 32p. \$2.75.

Anatole, the French mouse who rivals Mighty Mouse in the affections of children, has a wonderful kite trip with all his family. Only his resourcefulness saves them from disaster. Paul Galdone has done wonders with illustrations that go straight to the hearts of children 4 to 8.

TUDOR, TASHA. *Alexander the Gander*. Walck, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.75.

Mrs. Fallow had planted some lovely heliotrope pansies that caught Alexander the Gander's eyes. "Just right for dessert,"

he thought. So when Sylvie Ann wasn't looking he made off for Mrs. Fallow's garden. His adventures are delightfully told in text and beautifully colored illustration. Ages 3-6.

UDRY, JANICE. *Alfred*. Whitman, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.50.

How a boy overcomes his fear of dogs is the theme of this warmly written story.

VAUGHAN, SAM. *New Shoes*. Doubleday, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.95.

What is more exciting when you are two or three or four or even five or six than choosing new shoes? Here is a gay-hearted picture book—all about the happy experience of choosing new shoes—which will be of great interest to the very young.

WAGNER, JOHN AND ESTHER. *Gift of Rome*. Little, Brown, 1961. 224p. \$4.00.

Cicero finds himself defending a young man in one of the strangest courtroom dramas in fiction. Once begun, the story moves from one strange twist to the next with hardly a pause between. Meanwhile, a good background of Revolutionary Rome prior to Julius Caesar is presented.

WARBURG, SANDOL STODDARD. *Keep It Like a Secret*. Little, Brown, 1961. unpaginated. \$3.00.

There is nothing more special than a secret—and this very special picture book is about the secret things worth knowing and sharing and keeping. Bright, bold, and imaginative, this book will appeal to children.

WATSON, NANCY DINGMAN. *Puppy-Dog Tales*. Doubleday, 1961. unpaginated. \$1.50.

Surprising as it may seem, Nancy Watson had to sort of stretch things to get enough nursery rhymes with or including dogs to fill out this book. The reader may be interested in trying to think of more. Aldren Watson has done superb illustrations. A book for all ages that enjoy nursery rhymes.

WINSLOW, MARJORIE. *Mud Pies and Other Recipes*. Macmillan, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

This is an outdoor cookbook of a completely new kind. Recipes "all tested by the author's children" are included for such delicacies as Tossed Leaves, Bark Sandwich, Daisy Dip, and Honeysuckle Wine. Very young homemakers are instructed to take pains in preparation and serve with a flourish. The text and the illustrations are clever, amusing and refreshing, at least to adults. One wonders, however, what the reactions of children will be.

WOLLHEIM, DONALD A. *Mike Mars—Astronaut*. Doubleday, 1961. 188p. \$1.25.

Mike Mars, who is an astronaut, is chosen along with six other young men, for a very dangerous assignment. This space story will fascinate middle elementary as they share these thrilling adventures with Mike and his friends. This title is the first in a series that should prove very popular.

WORSTELL, EMMA VIETOR. *Jump the Rope Jingles*. Macmillan, 1961. 55p. \$2.75.

Here are thirty-odd jump-rope rhymes and instructions for jump-rope games. The collection is enhanced by the illustrations of Sheila Greenwald who with few lines and what seems an almost accidental flourish has brought character, humor, and spontaneity to the typed page.

YOUNG, MIRIAM. *The Most Beautiful Kitten*. Lantern Press, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

Pam wanted a kitten, oh so much. When Mrs. Morgan asked her to visit her and choose the kitten Pam liked best, she thought the kitten was to be given her, but Mrs. Morgan just meant her to look at the "sho" kittens. Children 4 to 6 will be delighted as was Pam when she finds "the most beautiful kitten in all the world" just for her very own.

YOUNG, ROSAMUND. *Boss Ket*. Longmans, 1961. 210p. \$3.50.

Extremely engaging biography of Charles Kettering, inventor extraordinary of the self-starter for automobiles, cash register motors,

train and bus Diesel engines during the first half of the century. Suitable for junior high school youth and older.

ZIRBES, LAURA. *How Many Bears*. Putnam, 1961. 64p. \$2.52.

Jane and Jack have one big wish—to see three live bears, like the bears in the storybook. There are bears in the national parks they are told. How the children count the days till they can make the trip through the Great Smokies, then count the real, live, wide-awake bears—not three, but ten!—makes a warm and satisfying story for six-to-eight-year-olds.

Education and Psychology

CONANT, JAMES B. *Slums & Suburbs*. McGraw-Hill, 1961. 147p. \$1.95.

The most recent Conant's studies dealing with the American high school. This particular volume is a commentary on school in metropolitan areas. This volume is important reading for persons in the fields of school administration or secondary education, but the American citizen who is interested in his nation's schools will also find it decidedly worth reading.

CREMIN, LAWRENCE ARTHUR. *The Transformation of the School*. Knopf, 1961. 387p. \$5.50.

This is the story of the Progressive education movement in the United States, and it is extremely well told. Historians, as well as professional educators, will find this book to be most valuable.

CROSS, A. J. FOY; CYPHER, IREMEN F. *Audio-Visual Education*. Crowell, 1961. 415p. \$7.25.

An evaluation of the most modern developments in audio and visual aids and their practical application in a wide variety of teacher-learner situations. Bibliography included at end of each chapter. Will be of great help to the classroom teacher as well as the instructor planning a course on the college level.

DALTON, ROBERT H. *Personality and Social Interaction*. Heath and Co., 1961. 381p. \$6.00.

This is a useful text for college courses in mental hygiene and the psychology of ad-

justment. Both theory and cure histories are presented. The importance of social interaction is emphasized.

FLIEGLER, LOUIS A., Editor. *Curriculum Planning for the Gifted*. Prentice-Hall, 1961. 414p. \$9.00.

A practical volume designed to indicate some approaches to the problem of providing a curriculum adequate for the needs of gifted children, and then to indicate specifically the kinds of subject matter that should be included. The editor is Coordinator of Education of Exceptional Children at the University of Denver and each of the contributors is a specialist in his field of instruction.

GWYNN, J. MINOR. *Theory and Practice of Supervision*. Dodd, Mead, 1961. 473p. \$6.75.

A sound volume, useful as a text for a college course or a reference tool for supervisors. The author is an experienced educator whose observations and suggestions merit careful study.

HEISE, B. W., Editor. *New Horizons for Canada's Children: Canadian Conference on Children, Proceedings 1960*. University of Toronto, 1961. 199p. \$2.00.

Summaries and statements together with formal speeches which have been reviewed and edited by the speakers make up the main portion of this book which is the Proceedings of the 1st Canadian Conference on Children. One of the objectives of the conference was "to provide a medium for better understanding among those engaged in children's work."

HODENFIELD, G. K.; STINNETT, T. M. *The Education of Teachers*. Spectrum, 1961. 177p. \$1.95.

This volume is reports on the three conferences held in 1958, 1959 and 1960, of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. The meetings, familiarly known as the Bowling Green, Kansas, and San Diego conferences, were attempts to bring divergent segments of American education together to talk about the preparation of the nation's teachers.

HUCK, CHARLOTTE S.; YOUNG, DORIS A. *Children's Literature in the Elementary School*. Holt, Rinehart, 1961. 522p. \$6.75.

An excellent textbook for use by classes in children's literature. It is well organized, and the several indexes will prove most valuable. Though the illustrations are in black and white, the quality of reproduction is good; certainly, because of their appropriateness and superior quality, they deserve to be favorably mentioned.

JAMES, R. MARGARET. *School Volunteers*. Public Education Association, 1961. 200p. \$3.95.

Detailed account of a novel program whereby unpaid volunteers in the community assisted in many tasks of school personnel in New York City. Includes various procedures, records, and suggestions of possible use in other communities.

MASSEY, HAROLD W.; VINEYARD, EDWIN E. *The Profession of Teaching*. Odyssey, 1961. 324p. \$4.

This book provides an excellent overview of the teaching profession in the United States. It does not sidestep problems such as conflicting philosophies of education, evaluating pupil progress, and maintaining effective discipline. Though each topic is briefly discussed, the authors have included sufficient details to make the book a valuable text for an introductory course in professional education.

MURPHY, GARDNER. *Freeing Intelligence Through Teaching*. Harper, 1961. 64p. \$2.95.

The 1961 John Dewey Society Lecture, fourth of the series delivered by a distinguished psychologist. The author writes in a vigorous, forthright style, and offers some striking ideas about the effects of a teacher's conception of the learning process in the quality of his students' learning.

SCOTTISH COUNCIL FOR RESEARCH IN EDUCATION. *Studies in Spelling*. University of London, 1961. 208p.

An investigation of some of the problems of teaching spelling in the Schotting elementary school.

SMITH, HENRY; DECHANT, EMERALD V. *Psychology in Teaching Reading*. Prentice-Hall, 1961. 470p. \$10.00.

A laudable attempt to provide the teacher with a general knowledge of physiological and psychological bases of the reading process. This book has few "practical" aspects but would be valuable to the professional teacher who wishes to expand his understanding of the reading process.

THOMAS, LAWRENCE G. AND OTHERS. *Perspective on Teaching*. Prentice-Hall, 1961. 432p. \$6.75.

A praiseworthy effort to interpret current public education to the beginning student of education, and also to laymen. Designed as a text for the introductory course in education, this book deals with major feature of the public school system; current concepts, conflicts, and consequences; and teaching as a profession.

WILDS, ELMER H.; LOTTICH, KENNETH V. *The Foundations of Modern Education*. Holt, Rinehart, 1961. 491p. \$6.00.

A general introduction to the subject of education. The latter part of the book deals largely with educational philosophies and their application to the teaching situation.

Health and Physical Education

POTTER, WILLIAM H. *You and Your Doctor*. Duell, Sloan, 1961. 288p. \$5.00.

This book is written for the general public with the prime purpose of helping the patient to obtain better medical care. It will bring about a better understanding about relationships with the private physician.

History

DEGAULTIER, JULES. *From Kant to Nietzsche*. Philosophical Library, 1961. 290p. \$4.75.

A challenging essay by a leading exponent of Monistic Idealism. The book has been very well translated and printed with an excellent introduction by the translator.

MCCORMICK, EDGAR; MCGEHEE, EDWARD. *Life on a Whaler*. Heath, 1960. 11p. \$1.40.

Roland Bartel, General Editor of a series of *Selected Source Materials for College Research Papers*, is bringing together in short volumes materials written on various topics. Each book contains a guide for writing research papers, excerpts from outstanding sources, and a comprehensive bibliography on the subject. An excellent aid for the student researcher.

SCHMITT, BERNADOTTE E. *The Fashion & Future of History*. Western Reserve University Press, 1961. 205p. \$5.50.

An absolutely magnificent collection of essays written by one of the foremost historians of the twentieth century. They were written during a period of almost fifty years, and were prepared for the presentation before some particular group or meeting; each of them is a joy to read.

TOYNBEE, ARNOLD. *Reconsiderations*. Oxford University, 1961. 740p. \$10.00.

This book is in effect, Volume XII of the author's monumental *Study of History*. It is in Toynbee's words "a report of second thought." Thus, the volume ranges over a multitude of topics encompassing the entire range of human history. Interest and insight are added by the author's reflections on his own personal characteristics and influences.

Library Science

JOLLEY, L. *The Principles of Cataloguing*. Philosophical Library, 1961. 147p. \$3.75.

Recommended for those who like to be brought up to date on current opinion on cataloging and the motivation for the proposed catalog code revision.

LOWRIE, JEAN ELIZABETH. *Elementary School Libraries*. Scarecrow Press, 1961. 235p. \$5.00.

An elementary school libraries studies ten school library systems and presents excellent suggestions on curriculum enrichment

experiences, reading guidance, instruction in the use of the library as well as a chapter on the role of the school administrator.

MOTT, CAROLYN; BAISDEN, L. B. *The Children's Book on How To Use Books and Libraries*. Scribner's, 1961. 207p. \$2.96.

Cartoons illustrate the simply written text on developing skill in using indexes and catalogs, encyclopedias, dictionaries, globes and maps, as well as how to write a book review. It should help the library in the modern school to realize its fullest potentialities, since it will serve as an excellent guide to its use.

List

Completed Research in Health, Phy. Ed., Recreation. American Association of Health, Phy. Ed., and Recreation, 1961. 92p. \$1.50.

DEBERNARDIS, AMO. *The Use of Instructional Materials*. Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961. 100p. \$1.10. Current Problems in Education series.

ENDICOTT, FRANK S. *Guiding Superior and Talented High School Students*. Superior and Talented Students Program, 1961. 84p.

Financing Educational Finance National Education Association. Committee on Educational Finance National Education Association. 111p. \$1.00.

HAGGARD, H. RIDER. *3 Adventure Novels*. Dover, 1961. 636p. \$2.00.

HALL, ROBERT A., JR. *Sound and Spelling in English*. Chilton, 1961. 34p. \$1.00.

HULLFISH, HENRY GORDON. *Toward a Democratic Education*. Ohio State University Press, 1961. 90p.

XXIII International Conference on Public Education, 1960. UNESCO, 1961. 151p.

Manuals on Adult and Youth Education 2. UNESCO, 1961. 113p. \$1.25.

PFEFFER, J. ALAN. *German Review Grammar*. Heath, 1961. 270p.

POLNER, MURRAY. *Enriching Social Studies*. Teachers Practical Press, 1961. 60p. \$1.75.

POSTMAN, NEIL. *Television and the Teaching of English*. Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961. 138p. \$1.00.

PROKOFIEV, M. A.; CHILIKIN, M. G.; TULPANOV, S. I. *Higher Education in the USSR*. UNESCO, 1961. 59p. \$1.00.

RESNICK, ABRAHAM. *350 Ideas for Teachers*. Educational Publications, 1961. 48p. \$1.60.

SHAKESPEARE, WILLIAM. *The Tempest*. Longmans, 1961. 136p. \$.95.

SHERE, MARIE ORR. *Speech and Language Training for Cerebral Palsy*. Interstate, 1961. 40p. \$1.00.

The Slow Learner in Secondary Schools. New Jersey Secondary School Teachers Association, 1961. 100p.

UNESCO Teachers' Associations International Directories of Education. UNESCO, 1961. 125p. \$3.50.

Youth Physical Fitness. President's Council on Youth Fitness, 1961. 111p.

Literature

COLIS, WILLIAM ROBERT. *African Encounter*. Scribners, 1961. 211p. \$4.50.

A picture of Nigeria as seen through the eyes of an Irish physician as he helps to set up a pediatrics clinic in Ibadan, Western Nigeria. Not only does he show the stark poverty and disease which pervade, and the pitiful lines of children awaiting help, but he pleads eloquently for measures which can bring relief to their plight.

FERMO, LAURA; BERNARDINI, GILBERTO. *Galileo*. Basic Books, 1961. 150p. \$3.50.

Accurate and well-written biography of an outstanding scientist. Clearly places the work of Galileo in the context of his time. Highly recommended for high school libraries.

FITZGERALD, F. SCOTT. *Taps at Reveille*. Scribners, 1960. 340p. \$4.50.

This is a reprint of the last volume published by Fitzgerald in his lifetime. It contains two or three of his finest short stories.

GATEWOOD, WILLARD B., JR. *Eugene Clyde Brooks*. Duke University, 1961. 279p. \$6.00.

A biography of a tireless laborer in the cause of public education in North Carolina. The work is entertainingly written, not over long, and gives a clear picture of the man himself. Bibliographies for courses in the history of education in the South should include this volume.

McFARLANE, JAMES, Editor. *IBSEN Vol. V*. Oxford University Press, 1961. 499p. \$7.00.

This is a part of a series of publications intended to constitute a definitive English edition of Ibsen's work. The translator and editor is a thoroughly qualified scholar who has worked from clearly defined, reasonable assumptions about what his task requires. The result is an indispensable addition to our resources for understanding Ibsen.

MILLS, LOIS. *So Young a Queen*. Lothrop, 1961. 172p. \$3.00.

The Medieval idea that "A man must give his life to his craft" included a queen's obligation to her king, even though he be a pagan and a fire-worshiper. In this case, the queen is Jadwiga, a great woman of Europe who succeeded in converting her king and the people of Lithuania to Christianity.

PETRIE, SIR CHARLES. *The Victorians*. Longmans, Green, 1961. 270p. \$6.75.

A generously illustrated, handsomely printed volume containing informative and

anecdotal essays on various aspects of life in Victoria's Britain. Not first-rate history but excellent for filling the social and political background.

THOREAU, HENRY DAVID. *Heart of Thoreau's Journals*. Dover, 1961. 228p. \$1.45.

The best of Thoreau's journals, just right for reading and reflection, whether in bed or on a plane, or sitting in the shade. A paperback.

WELLS, HERBERT GEORGE. *Three Prophetic Novels of H. G. Wells*. Dover, 1961. 335p. \$1.45.

The short novels here reprinted in a paperback volume are *When the Sleeper Wakes*, *A Story of Days to Come*, and *The Time Machine*. These illustrate the overlap of Utopian fabrications and "science fiction."

WIBBERLEY, LEONARD. *The Time of the Lamb*. Washburn, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

This tender, appealing story of the English downs has a simple story directly told. The boy who was the old shepherd's helper had a fear of the vastness of the wide spaces. Then on a Christmas night there was peace for the boy, the shepherd and the sheep.

Music

ROUTLEY, ERIK. *The English Carol*. Oxford University Press, 1959. 272p. \$5.00.

This book is bound to become the Bible on the subject. The *Oxford Book of Carols* is an essential companion book. Even the appendices are interesting!

RYDEN, ERNEST EDWIN. *Story of Christian Hymnody*. Augustana Press, 1959. 684p. \$5.95.

A revision and enlargement of the same author's "The Story of Our Hymns." Very extensive somewhat popularized though by no means un-scholarly treatment of major hymns and hymn sources from the beginning of Christianity. Helpful to the student, superb for the layman.

TIOMKIN, DIMITRI; BURANELLI, PROSPER. *Please Don't Hate Me*. Doubleday, 1960. \$3.95.

A frank, gay and witty autobiography of a musician, trained at the St. Petersburg Conservatory in Czarist days, who was later a concert pianist, but has become "famous" through the acceptance speech he made when receiving the third of his four Academy Awards for his music for motion pictures. He delighted everyone, except other screen composers, by thanking a host of great composers for their part in his success.

Philosophy and Religion

FUJISAWA, DR. CHIKAO. *Zen and Shinto: A History of Japanese Philosophy*. Philosophical Library, 1959. 92p. \$2.75.

In a manner faintly reminiscent of the scholarly mysticism of the early fathers of the Christian Church, the author traces the development of Japanese philosophy from its mythological roots to contemporary Neo-Shintoism, which regards itself as a basis for a world religion capable of reconciling man's scientific knowledge with his spiritual longings. The student of Japanese society and culture will rediscover the perennial influence of traditional Japanese philosophy on Japanese intellectualism.

GRYST, EDWARD. *Talk Sense!* Macmillan, 1961. 111p. \$2.95.

Twenty-six brief dialogues with "the man in the street." The philosophical implications of each are defined in four or five lines of technical philosophy at the end of each chapter. The author is an Australian member of the Society of Jesus.

KOCH, ADRIENNE K. *Philosophy for a Time of Crisis*. Dutton, 1959. 382p. \$5.95.

Selections from the writings of distinguished thinkers of the present day, including Toynbee, Einstein, Erich Fromm, Martin Buber and Jacques Maritain. An introduction and a conclusion have been provided by the editor.

Reference

Handwriting and Related Factors, 1890-1960. Handwriting Foundation, 1961. 134p.

This comprehensive bibliography of more than seventeen hundred books and articles on handwriting published in both America and Europe during the seventy-year span from 1890 to 1960 is the first work of its kind ever compiled. Arranged under topical headings, it represents a wide variety of interest in handwriting. The book, unique in its field, will be of primary value to educators and students interested in handwriting research.

KELLER, THOMAS F. *Accounting for Corporate Income Taxes*. University of Michigan, 1961. 145p. \$5.00. Michigan Business Studies Vol. XV, No. 2.

The author set himself three objectives; 1) to determine the cause of the incurrance of the corporate income tax; 2) to consider alternatives for handling the tax charge which are consistent with the proper timing of the charge; and finally, to provide a basis for recording income taxes which is consistent with the existing body of accounting principles. An excellent research on a difficult topic.

LECOMTE, EDWARD S. *A Milton Dictionary*. Philosophical Library, 1961. 358p. \$6.00.

Included in this comprehensive guide to prose and poetry of Milton is a dictionary of all the difficult words used by the author, a descriptive entry for each of his works, and some fifty entries which cover the poet's relatives, biographers, editors, and leading critics. This should be of particular interest to teachers and students of Milton.

MENZEL, DONALD H.; JONES, HOWARD MUMFORD; BOYD, L.G. *Writing A Technical Paper*. McGraw-Hill, 1961. 132p. \$3.25.

Here is practical help for anyone who wishes to plan, outline, draft, and revise a paper on some aspect of science or engineering. There are suggestions for proper use of English, correct style, and physical make-up. The clear discussion on the use of "pro-

professional jargon" should be a warning to all. A good feature is the chapter on how to present scientific data.

NAFT, STEPHEN. *International Conversion Tables*. Sloan and Pearce, 1961. 372p. \$7.50.

This new edition, current and expanded, of *Conversion Equivalents in International Trade*, published 30 years ago, will be a handy reference book for those people who need international conversion tables in weights, measures, gauges, currencies and similar areas. Good physical format makes it easy to use.

NEWMAN, WILLIAM H.; SUMMER, CHARLES E., JR. *The Process of Management*. Prentice-Hall 1961. 673p. \$7.95.

This text is organized into parts dealing with structural design, human factors in organizing, elements of decision-making, planning, leadership, and measurement and controlling. Each part is followed by illustrative cases. The text is well-organized and well-written.

Private Independent Schools. The 1961 Yearbook. 1152p. \$7.50.

This is a yearbook describing 850 independent schools in all parts of the country, including boarding, day, elementary, secondary, boys', girls', and coeducational schools. It is designed primarily for parents but will be consulted in public and school libraries. May not be most complete source as length of school description depends upon fee paid by school.

SMITH, SIR WILLIAM. *Small Latin English Dictionary*. Barnes & Noble, 1961. 825p. \$4.95.

This edition brings this well known dictionary up to date in accordance with the clearer understanding of the Latin language which scholars have brought about. The treatment of word meanings is in the logical order of development which is not necessarily the historical. The type is larger and more legible than in earlier editions.

THOMSON, JAMES OLIVER. *Everyman's Classical Atlas*. Dutton, 1961.

125p. \$5.00. Everyman's reference library series.

Students of antiquity will be pleased by this revised atlas containing fifty-six pages of maps in color, black and white sketch maps, photographs, and a full index in the form of a gazetteer. The editor's essay on the development of ancient geographical knowledge and theory increases the value of the work.

Manual of Education Statistics. UNESCO, 1961. 2410.

The Special Intergovernmental Committee on the International Standardization of Educational Statistics drafted a recommendation on the standardization of education statistics which was adopted by the General Conference. This *Manual* "is intended to explain the various suggestions concerning definitions, classifications, and tabulations of educational statistics" which were suggested in the above recommendation.

WECHSLER, LOUIS K. AND OTHERS. *College Entrance Counselor*. Barnes & Noble, 1961. 413p. \$3.50.

The authors designed this book to provide information and advice for college bound students and the parents. Part I includes necessary counseling; Part II includes career guides, college directories, and a guide to scholarships. Very comprehensive, perhaps to the point of confusion for some lay people, this book will be excellent for school counselors.

Science and Mathematics

BEELER, NELSON F. *Experiments in Sound*. Crowell, 1961. 130p. \$2.95.

An ably written science book for able beginning junior high school students. The diagrams are appropriate. The suggestions on experiments will maintain interest.

CROWTHER, J. G. *Radioastronomy and Radar*. Criterion, 1961. 143p. \$3.50.

Teen-age scientists will find this introduction to one of the contemporary science developments rewarding in both factual content and inspirational style.

CURIE, MARIE. *Radioactive Substances*. Philosophical Library, 1961. 94p. \$2.75.

It is unusually helpful to have this translation of Marie Curie's classical thesis on radioactive substances for students interested in studying the methods of science.

Doubleday Pictorial Library of Science. Doubleday, 1961. 258p. \$9.95.

Excellent pictorial and textual reference book for junior high school youth on chemistry, physics, and astronomy, authentic. Outstanding illustrations, many of which are in color. Useful glossary of one thousand science words. Highly recommended.

DUCROCP, ALBERT. *Victory Over Space*. Little, Brown, 1961. 264p. \$4.95.

The adult reader, young and old, will find answers to questions and explanations for astronautic phenomena in this carefully written book. A modest knowledge of scientific terminology is required. Ably translated from French.

FEINBERG, J. G. *The Story of Atomic Theory and Atomic Energy*. Dover, 1961. 263p. \$1.45.

A well-written and accurate popular account of the development of a new technology.

FRASER, RONALD. *Planet Earth*. Roy, 1961. 72p. \$2.95. Progress of Science series.

A well-written British book presenting contemporary studies in a lucid way for middle secondary school youth. Very good for building technical vocabulary.

KETTELKAMP, LARRY. *Gliders*. Morrow, 1961. unpaginated. \$2.75.

A well illustrated challenge to the imagination of children 10-14. Suggests activities. Concludes with a description of man-carry gliders.

LANDAU, L. D.; RUMER, G. B. *What is Relativity?* Basic Books, 1961. 72p. \$1.75.

Two outstanding Russian scientists present the concept of relativity for high school

physics students. An interesting and readable translation.

LODGE, SIR OLIVER. *Pioneers of Science*. Dover, 1961. 404p. \$1.50.

This is a reprint of Lodge's famous lectures on the beginnings of modern astronomy. It is interesting for the beginner in the history of science.

MILGROM, HARRY. *Explorations in Science*. Dutton, 1961. 127p. \$3.00.

An outstanding set of instructions for science experiments appealing to the intermediate grades. The book is by a foremost specialist in science teaching. The new material and project suggestions will likewise appeal to teachers.

POLLACK, PHILIP. *Careers and Opportunities in Physics*. Dutton, 1961. 152p. \$3.75.

Physics and its subdivisions are presented from the potential careerists' view. Ably written and authoritative. Only current reference book of its kind.

RAMSEY, IAN. *Prospect in Metaphysics*. Philosophical Library, 1961. 240p. \$6.00.

Twelve papers by well-known metaphysicians presented at a gathering in England in 1959. There is variety among the various authors although their orientation is Christian.

RAWLINE, GEORGE M.; STRUBLE, ALDEN H.; GATEWOOD, CLADE. *Chemistry in Action*. Heath, 1961. 583p. \$5.56.

This fourth edition textbook is designed for a thorough one year course in high school chemistry. The treatment is modern and up-to-date. Each chapter is followed by two groups of questions, and where appropriate, by a set of numerical problems. The book is well illustrated with many photographs and drawings.

ROSTAND, JEAN. *Human Heredity*. Philosophical Library, 1961. 139p. \$4.75.

Although this book is not up-to-date in that it states the human chromosome count

to be 48 rather than 46—as founded in 1956 by Tjio and Levan—it is readable and interesting, and from the historical standpoint quite accurate.

SMITH, JOSEPH A. *Radio Building*. Children's Press, 1961. 63p. \$2.50.

A well-bound and carefully illustrated introduction to amateur radio and to radio set construction for boys in their early teens.

TAYLOR, LLOYD. *Physics: Pioneer Science*. 2 vol. Dover, 1961. 394p. \$2.00 each.

A reprint of an outstanding physics book stressing a historical, philosophical conceptual approach. Sound physics, interestingly written.

TICKTON, SIDNEY G. *Needed: A Ten Year College Budget*. Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1961. 40p.

This is required reading, especially for college officials directly concerned with their long-range financial operations and costs.

WEISS, HARVEY. *How to Ooze*. Abelard Schuman, 1961. unp. \$2.75.

An imaginative book on modes of travel for the primary grades. Ably illustrated.

YOUNG, PAUL THOMAS. *Motivation and Emotion*. Wiley & Sons, 1961. 648p.

This textbook for advanced courses in motivation emphasizes a multifactor approach to motivation. It is a comprehensive review of research in this area.

Social Studies

American Heritage. *The California Gold Rush*. American Heritage, 1961. 153p. \$3.50.

A volume in the American Heritage Junior Library Series. The account of this romantic episode in the American past is told with completeness, including the use of diaries and miners' journals. There are excellent illustrations throughout, many in full color.

ARMSTRONG, O. K. *15 Decisive Battles of the United States*. Longmans, Green, 1961. 370p. \$5.95.

A journalistic account for high school readers. O. K. Armstrong has omitted all mention of Korea from his list of the United States' most important battles, while giving sketchy treatment to some of the engagements he has included. Nevertheless, this is an interesting and engaging book.

BAILEY, THOMAS A. *The American Pageant*. Heath, 1961. 1037p. \$8.00.

This new edition of a basic college United States history text has been extended through 1960. Professor Bailey's interpretations are perceptive and interesting and as always leave plenty of room for disagreement.

CAESAR, GENE. *King of the Mountain Men*. Dutton, 1961. 317p. \$4.95.

A biography of Jim Bridger, beaver trapper and trader, who entered the wilderness at eighteen to establish and maintain a fur trading company, fighting against the elements and the unprincipled competition of John Jacob Astor and the monopolies.

CLARK, LEONARD. *Rivers Ran East*. Funk & Wagnall, 1961. 265p. \$3.50.

An adventure story for young readers and adults alike. It is an account of a search for gold in the jungles of the Amazon. A classic story of true exploration with few equals for sheer thrill.

DOUGLASS, PAUL AND McMAHON, ALICE. *How To Be an Active Citizen*. University of Florida, 1960. 90p. \$1.50.

This small volume tells the citizen not only what he should do to lead an active political life; but how to go about it. It will serve as a stimulus for young Americans to take part in political processes. A useful addition to the school library, in addition to being effective for adult groups.

FORCEY, CHARLES. *Crossroads of Liberalism*. Oxford University, 1961. 358p. \$7.00.

This book examines a major turning point in American political thought dealing with

the new liberalism and its support of the active role of government in improvement of society. Much of the book centers on three men Herbert Croly, Walter Weyl, and Walter Lippmann. Their ideas in the era of Theodore Roosevelt bring American liberalism to a crossroads and into conflict with Woodrow Wilson's New Freedom.

HANDLIN, OSCAR. *American Principles and Issues*. Holt, Rinehart, 1961. 576p. \$6.00.

A thoroughly fascinating collection of writings which deal with various aspects of American life. The selections which are well chosen come from every period of the nation's history and each in its own way seeks to point attention to some important quality in our national character. The ten essays which serve to introduce the different sections of the book deserve particular note.

HILL, JOHNSON; STUERMANN, WALTER. *Philosophy and the American Heritage*. Philosophical Library, 1961. 254p. \$3.50.

The authors see the America of today as having no cohesive philosophy to hold together the variety of ethnic groups, which constitute this society. They feel that the life and vitality of the nation and the worth of the culture embraced by it depend upon and will be in part determined by the philosophic perspective held by the people.

MCCORMICK, EDGAR L.; MCGEHEE, EDWARD G. Editors. *Sherman in Georgia*. Heath, 1961. 114p. \$1.40.

Here in selections from the works of fifteen different writers are accounts of life in Georgia during the Civil War years. Here is war in your own backyard. From these selections reprinted from the originals the college student is to take material for a research paper. Concise directions for writing the term paper are given. "Suggestions for library work" presents material where one can delve more deeply for details.

NEEL, ENRI PEARL WILLIFORD. *The Wilford-Williford Family Treks Into America*. Enri Pearl Williford Neel, 1961. 750p.

This is a remarkable assembling of

materials belonging in the genealogy of the Wilford family, but a somewhat exhaustive history of Christian and Trigg counties since the family had a dominant influence in their development.

ROUCEK, JOSEPH. *Contemporary Political Ideologies*. Philosophical Library, 1961. 470p. \$10.00.

This anthology presents analyses of 18 different ideologies present in the world today, including such standbys as Soviet Communism and Gandhism as well as such relatively new doctrines as apartheid and "the American Welfare State." Most of the surveys are historically or sociologically oriented and, as is usual in a work by so many authors, vary greatly in quality.

SALOMON, ROGER. *Twain and Image of History*. Yale, 1961. 216p. \$5.00.

Mark Twain is seen in the world in which he lived. The author explores personal and cultural sources of Twain's deep interest in history and notes parallels in such contemporaries as James, George, Bellamy and others. An insightful and scholarly treatise.

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Editorial—

NO Can Help YES Become a Lovely Word

Speakers, with whatever degree of dedication, are quite likely to play impassioned airs on the "Freedom" theme. It is a good theme though it does seem to tempt a bit of overstress. Not often does the speaker mention that there is no true freedom without a proper exercise of restraint. Untempered freedom is itself menacing to true freedom. One should have freedom to own property, but only if his ownership in no manner violates the public welfare. One should have freedom to earn a living, but only when the product of his labor is honestly achieved and satisfies a public need. One should have freedom to rise in the scale, but only so long as his learning and promotion are favorable to the general welfare. One should have freedom to travel, to go places, to visit other communities and countries, but only when he is willing and able to conform to traffic restrictions, and the basic laws and customs of the places visited. One should have the freedom to speak when he has given intelligent thought to the things he says; freedom to act when his deeds offer no hurt to law, good taste, and good manners.

True freedom will always be costly, and never an overt invitation to irresponsibility. *Yes*, properly used, is a lovely word, but without the chastening influence of *No* it would soon become a symbol of anarchy.

In Principium Erat Verbum

DAVID KASER, *Director*
Joint University Libraries
Nashville, Tennessee

The antiquity of libraries is a venerable antiquity, extending in most traditions to the very beginnings of the world—indeed in some even earlier. “According to several religions,” one author has pointed out, “there were book collections before the creation of man; the Talmud has it that there was one before the creation of the world, the Vedas say that collections [of books] existed before even the Creator created himself, and the Koran maintains that such a collection co-existed from eternity with the uncreated God.”¹

Best known in western thought is the Judeo-Christian concept that goes one step further and identifies books with the Creator himself—a concept best expressed in the opening words of the Gospel according to St. John. “In the beginning was the word . . . ;” the word preceded all else in being. Could anything else have come into being thereafter, if it had not been for the earlier existence of the word to give it meaning? The word pre-existed all other phenomena in order to perpetuate that phenomena.

The word has been endowed in many ancient cultures with great mystical powers. The curse is an example. Although in western civilization the curse has to a large measure degenerated into a hollow uttering of a meaningless phrase, among many people the strength of the word pronounced as a curse is still a compelling strength. The hexes which are still practiced among some superstitious folks are remnants of the original belief in the power of the word. Black magic is no longer practiced in the western world, but as late as the Renaissance, Abracadabra was a word with which to conjure or cast spells and had about it an aura of awful preternaturalism. An interesting convolution was the not infrequent practice in medieval scriptoria of appending colophons to manuscript books pronouncing excommunication upon

¹ E. C. Richardson, *The Beginnings of Libraries*, Princeton, 1914, p. 11.

anyone who should steal them. Herein the word was used to damn him who would steal the word intended to enlighten and instruct. It was a two-edged sword.

Libraries have existed from eternity for the preservation of the word, for it is the word, placed into myriad combinations and juxtapositions that convey man's concepts and ideas, his hopes and aspirations, facts and experimentations, that must be exploited by scholarship for the development of new and additional understanding. There were great libraries in the ancient world—in Babylon, in Egypt, Greece, and Rome. Ashurbanapal had a library of 20,000 clay tablets, and the library at Alexandria contained over 700,000 books, mostly in papyrus scroll format. Much knowledge was then lost during the Dark Ages, when the ancient world's book collections were despoiled by marauding pagan hordes and by warring princely factions who placed the sword above the pen. It is not merely fortuitous, however, that the great Renaissance came upon the heels of the printing press, when suddenly "the word" was more readily available than ever before to any scholars who sought it. All at once—overnight as it were—libraries could grow without stint, bringing together for use the sum total of man's knowledge and speculation.

Book collections were once again developed in the centers of learning. Academicians needed "the word" but this time for the accomplishment of their white magic—the development of the many well-nigh miraculous devices and concepts that comprise our present technological civilization. Each new improvement was built upon the centuries of experimentation, preserved in libraries, which had preceded it.

In the young Western Hemisphere especially the importance of strong libraries was readily recognized. In fact, a strange analogy may be noted between the establishment of America's research libraries and the ancient belief in the primacy of books, because some of the great academic libraries of this nation actually preceded or were co-established with the institutions of which they are part. In such institutions, as in the Talmud, the word actually pre-existed or co-existed with its creator. Truly "In principium erat verbum . . ." Some examples may be noted.

The oldest university in English America is, of course, Harvard. It was only two years after the General Court of the Massachusetts Bay

Colony voted in 1636 to establish a college that the Reverend John Harvard of Charleston bequeathed to the fledgling institution some £780 and his private library of 300 volumes. One writer has pointed out that as far as is known these books were the first higher educational property in America.² As a result of this bequest the new college was given the name it wears today. By 1643, Harvard College could be described as follows:

The Edifice is very faire and comely within and without, having in it ■ spacious Hall; (where they daily meet at commons, Lecture, Exercises;) and a large Library with some Bookes to it.³

One version of the founding of Yale University is even more dramatic in the early role it gives to its library. Writing in 1766 Yale President Thomas Clap described the founding of his institution by ten ministers who had been nominated for the purpose by the colony as follows:

The Ministers . . . agreed to found a College in the Colony of Connecticut; which they did in their next Meeting at Branford, in the following Manner, viz. Each Member brought ■ Number of Books and presented them to the Body; and laying them on the Table, said these Words or to this Effect; "I give these Books for the founding [of] ■ college in this Colony." Then the Trustees ■ a Body took Possession of them; and appointed the Rev. Mr. Russel of Branford to be Keeper of the Library, which then consisted of about 40 volumes in Folio.⁴

It appears from this anecdote that these worthies of the cloth recognized that by the establishment of a library, Yale was founded, even though to that time the institution was still without faculty, plant, or student body. Unfortunately, the authenticity of the tale has been challenged. Those who like the story, however, find solace in the proposition that its authenticity perhaps does not really matter. At least one president of Yale, Thomas Clap, felt that the story was sufficiently within the spirit of truth to give it wide circulation—indeed perhaps even to originate it, since it has not been found prior to his narration of it.

² Louis Shores, *Origins of the American College Library, 1638-1800*, N.Y., 1935, p. 11. Much of the subsequent material on libraries in Colonial America is also taken from this work, *passim*.

³ *Publications of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts*, 15, lxxii.

⁴ Thomas Clap, *The Annals or History of Yale-College*. New Haven, 1766, pp. 3-4.

Columbia University Libraries, now the fourth largest academic collection in the country, came into existence in the same year the university itself was chartered as King's College. In that year, 1754, one John Murray bequeathed a fine library to the new institution, and within two years a Rev. Dr. Bristow of London had donated 1,500 additional volumes. Also "sundry gentlemen at Oxford gave books, whose names are in them." These several collections must have comprised in their day an excellent library for a college only two years old.

Provision had been made for the University of Pennsylvania Library several years prior to the issuing of the university's charter. At least six years earlier there had been a library in Benjamin Franklin's academy, which subsequently became the university. There is clear record of extensive encouragement of this library by the printer-diplomat during its early years. Upon its actual founding in 1755 the institution took prompt measures to strengthen the library, and within three years

It being represented to the Trustees that many of the Students in the Philosophy School had been deficient in their Exercises and otherways much retarded in their Studies for Want of a Library furnished with suitable Books on the different branches of Science, the Clerk was therefore directed to acquaint the Trustees by the next written Notices that a proposal was under Consideration for granting a Sum of Money to be laid out in purchasing an Assortment of approved Authors for the Use of the College

That Benjamin Franklin, book-conscious founder of the Library Company of Philadelphia, also lent his support to the project of developing the library of the new university may be assumed.

In 1762 one Eleazar Wheelock of New Hampshire began raising money for a library to be used by a college that did not yet exist—indeed that was not destined to be chartered for seven more years. Gifts poured in from interested donors on both sides of the Atlantic, and records of their receipt exist from 1762, 1763, 1764, 1767, and 1768, so it may be accepted that by the time Dartmouth College was finally chartered in 1769 its library was already quite strong. A year later the library was supplemented by a check for £100 from Colonel Theodor Atkinson to be spent for books. Dartmouth thus was the last

colonial American institution whose library either pre-existed or was co-established with it.

The present University of Michigan was not founded until 1837, but today its library is one of the country's great book collections, containing 3,000,000 volumes. This library also saw auspicious beginnings when the appointment of its librarian antedated the appointment of any other academic official in the university—including the president. The university was established by the so-called Organic Act of 1837, wherein the state Legislature directed that the first academic appointment of the new Board of Regents should be that of University Librarian, a directive which the Board followed on June 7 of that year.

Developing a book collection was also a first item of business at Michigan, and by November the Board had drawn up a desiderata list for the library and had agreed to retain "a suitable agent to visit Europe for the purpose of procuring the . . . standard books." Although gifts of books had already been received by the new library, the first actual purchase took place in February of 1838, when the Board approved the expenditure of \$1,000 for a copy of Audubon's monumental work *Birds of America*.

Probably no other institution in history has ever paid \$1,000 for its first book. With this kind of administrative support and Board awareness of the undeniable importance of a strong library, which fortunately for Michigan has continued to this day, it is easy to see how its library, although only a century and a quarter old, has grown to be the fifth largest in the land.⁵

The primitive recognition of the power of the word has not run its course, but rather persists among academicians even to the present day. In fact, the youngest university in the land has also directed its first attention to the development of a library. This institution is the University of South Florida, now in its second year of instruction, which was authorized by the state legislature in 1955 and established by Board of Control resolution late the following year. By October 1, 1957, three persons constituted the entire faculty and staff of the new-born univer-

⁵ Summarized from Russell E. Bidlack's "Henry Colclazer, the University of Michigan's First Librarian," *Michigan Alumnus Quarterly Review* LXII (1956), 157-71, and his "The University of Michigan General Library: ■ History of Its Beginnings." (PhD diss., University of Michigan 1954).

sity; these were the president, his secretary, and the librarian. The subsequent appointment of several additional professional librarians antedate the coming of the first member of the teaching faculty. By adhering to this venerable tradition of devoting first place to its library the university was able to boast of a book stock of some 25,000 volumes and current subscriptions to three hundred journals by the time it admitted its first freshman in September 1960.⁶

Does a causal relationship exist between the degree of academic excellence which an institution enjoys and its devotion of primary attention to the power of "the word" through support of its library collections? Some would look at the reputations of the above-mentioned universities and say, "Yes, definitely!" Others would perhaps balk. If such a relationship does indeed exist, the early actions of the University of South Florida bode well for its future, for it is travelling in good company.

The primacy of book collections may be couched in many different similes and may be recognized in many different cultures, but nowhere is it less deniable than in the American academic scene. Strong libraries, it must be admitted, attract strong faculties, and fine faculties help to precipitate fine libraries, effecting thus a very useful and endless spiral. The nineteenth-century Scots philosopher Thomas Carlyle was doing obeissance in modern terms to the ancient concept of the primacy of the word when he said in *Heroes and Hero-Worship*, "The true University of these days is a Collection of Books."

⁶ Letter to the author, dated November 20, 1961, from Elliott Hardaway, Director of Libraries, University of South Florida.

I Retire?

HOY TAYLOR
Shorter College
Rome, Georgia

In the spring of 1949 President Wells of the Georgia State College for Women, in which institution I had been Dean of Instruction and Professor of Social Science for the preceding fifteen years, called my attention to the fact that I was reaching the age limit for compulsory retirement in the University System of Georgia. The retirement system had been in effect some four or five years and I had looked forward to the fateful day with anything but fond anticipation. True the situation was much better than it would have been five years earlier when the severance from work would have come without any compensation.

For all the more than forty years of my teaching experience I had been facing the practical certainty of poverty and want during retirement years. I had just at last made the last payment on a home, but had been able to accumulate no cushion for actual living expenses. The prospect of going on relief or becoming a dependent of my children had stared me in the face with an ugly threat. Now however the small retirement allowance provided by the state would stand between me and actual hunger. Of course I might possibly find some employment, but what could I do? During the summer I shopped around among my acquaintances for a teaching place but with small encouragement. I had no capital to start a business nor had I any skill to use outside the professional education field.

Bad as it was the economic situation was not the only, nor even the most serious, problem. For all the years of my life in education I had followed a routine. Every morning I had known of certain things that must be done during the day and I had learned to look forward to new things that would certainly develop. There was always unfinished business from the day before and there was certain to be a letter, or a student, or a faculty conference that would require a considered decision. Then too, for most of my life I had taught one or more classes in

addition to administrative work and the student subject-matter relationship was never entirely out of my mind. Each day was an adventure and a challenge, a sure promise of new experience. And now it was all about to change. No more contacts with students about academic plans or future life prospects. No more classes to be scolded and encouraged and quizzed; no more satisfaction that comes from seeing a student attack a new problem. Of course the college would get along without me. The routine would continue without interruption. New students would come and stay a while and then go. New faculty members would arrive and burn with zeal and gradually cool and the institutional process would proceed much as it had for a thousand years. But I would have no part in it. It would be as if I were lying in my grave watching the world go by without being able to join the procession. In short, retirement would be the beginning of death itself.

Then why not chuck it all and go fishing! Unfortunately, I had never developed a hobby or other recreational interest. Hunting and fishing, the refuge of many, had never appealed to me. Once as a small boy I caught a small mountain trout with a pin hook that I had made with the help of my father. The poor little fish fell in the leaves near the bank of the stream and there fluttered its life away for lack of oxygen in the air just as I might have done in its native environment. I can still see the last gasp of its gills and the last flick of its tail, and then it lay still in the dry leaves. I took no more pleasure in fishing. One day I took my little red shot gun out and idly fired at an innocent robin that was feeding on the insects and seeds in the pasture. When I ran up to where it lay on the grass I saw the half empty skull and the little bits of brain scattered about in the blades of grass. I shot no more birds! Later I thought it would be fine to go squirrel hunting. When the squirrel at which I had aimed fell to the ground I rushed to pick it up. When suddenly it started running away leaving its entrails trailing behind, I had to finish the brutal murder with a rock. I did not go squirrel hunting again! No, I do not hunt and fish for sport! In better days I had spent many hours just rambling through the woods, watching the quivering leaves, listening to the sound of the water trickling over the stones down in the wooded ravines, and being lulled by the sighing of the wind in the pine needles, but to a person who voted for William J. Bryan in 1900, such activity is hardly practical any more.

Throughout the summer of 1949, I wondered and worried. The limited contacts I made with colleges gave me scant encouragement. I recalled all my experiences of the past and wondered if there were not something else that I could do. Nothing seemed possible. The fall was approaching and there were no prospects. Then one day I noticed in a newspaper that one of the members of the social science department at Mercer University had just been granted a year's leave of absence for graduate study. At once I wrote President Dowell that I would be glad to help out in an emergency. His prompt reply was that there was an opening in sociology and that I could have it. But that was something else again. I had never had a course in sociology in college nor was I acquainted with the literature on the subject. True, I had been chairman of the Social Studies division in the Georgia University System and had taught freshman classes in social studies for years. However, with the encouragement of the head of our sociology department at GSCW, I agreed to undertake the Mercer job, and thus began one of the most stimulating and delightful experiences of my career.

I accepted assignment to some of the basic courses with trepidation and went to work. The experience was almost like going back to college and beginning preparation for a new career. I began digging into some basic books and to my satisfaction I found that sociology was simply an organization of life experiences with an attempt to find a core nucleus around which all I had thought and done and lived could be integrated and explained. The concept that any one personality is in a way a product of all life and experience both in time and space came to me as the sunshine breaking through the clouds after a rainy day. In a way I have lived inwardly more in the last ten or so years than in all the years before. What if I had never had this experience!

Within the second year at Mercer the dean became ill and I was asked to look after the routine of the office for a few weeks, until some permanent arrangement could be made. This assignment continued for four additional years, until Mercer adopted a retirement system. The Mercer connection provided a wonderful educational experience for me. My experience up to that time had been mostly in a woman's college and switching to an institution made up predominantly of men was stimulating. In the spring of 1955 a good friend and associate on the faculty was selected to replace me in September. This time, how-

ever, the departure from the job was not so painful. I had qualified for social security and the economic problem was much less troublesome. Besides, I had had a new and stimulating experience and I could look forward to the fewer years of inactivity and vegetation if such must be. But it turned out that life wasn't done with me yet. The president of Montreat College asked me to take charge of his education department for a year while he was finding a replacement for a man who had had to withdraw because of health. Then Union College in Kentucky wanted a man in social studies for a semester and a summer.

Then in the spring of 1957 the president of Shorter College requested me by long distance telephone to come for an interview in regard to the sociology work at Shorter. The result was that I signed a contract for one year. The understanding was that when I could be replaced by a younger man with a prospect of continued employment over a longer period, it would again be time to move on. I am now in the middle of my fifth year at Shorter under similar conditions. There is always the chance I won't recognize approaching senility. So the president assumes that responsibility.

The more the years of activity the fewer those of mere existence and vegetation. Perhaps the time will come when I shall be content to sit in a rocking chair on the porch and pass the hours in peace and contentment, but I shudder to think of it. Perhaps nature will work it out so that I will be unaware of what is transpiring, but I wish it wouldn't.

Economic Education: A Blind Spot

BERT HAMILTON
Mercer University
Macon, Georgia

Recently I read with much interest an article in *Saturday Review* (March 18, 1961) by G. Scott Wright, Jr., entitled "The Ignorant Silence," in which the author eloquently pointed out the sad neglect of art in our schools. The article ended with these words:

The next time you have a chance, ask an American teenager to identify Peter Paul Rubens, or Albrecht Durer, or Rembrandt van Ryn. And remember, when he looks at you blankly, this is the mind of the future—this is the hope of civilization.

My experience in elementary, junior high, senior high schools, and college leads me to agree with Mr. Wright. I am led to observe further that most students in *liberal arts* colleges graduate with a *bachelor of arts* degree without having completed any *art* courses, or at least without having attained any true appreciation of the place of art in our cultural heritage. Although I wish it were otherwise, I have to number myself among this group.

In the wake of the indictment of American education left by the above article, I am constrained to point out another void in general education which is equally as serious, if, indeed, not more so: the serious lack of economic education at all the rungs of our American educational ladder.

I make no claim to the originality of this problem, nor do I pretend that the main thesis of this article and the thought in elaboration of it are original with me. My observations here come from many sources: Firsthand acquaintance with Southern rural economy, of which I am a product; hard work and study during the Great Depression; social studies teacher in elementary, junior high, and senior high school; service in Europe in World War II; avid reader of current happenings; and a doctoral research study concerning the desirable characteristics of citizenship education, one of which was found to be more and

better economic education.

Many individuals and agencies have suggested that our schools should be doing much better in teaching about our economic life, and its influence on our total culture. One of the more recent and influential agencies that has made such a recommendation is the National Task Force on Economic Education, appointed by the American Economic Association and sponsored by the Committee for Economic Development. The report of this task force is entitled *Economic Education in the Schools*. (It is well worth reading, and may be secured from the Committee on Economic Development at 711 Fifth Avenue, New York 22, New York.)

My excuse, then, for penning these thoughts here is that I wish to add my opinion on this subject to that of the many other individuals and agencies who see the critical importance of taking some action on it, and perhaps to attempt to make a brief synthesis that will underscore what many already believe, in the hope that more people will be willing to take some action. After all, action is what is needed; a mere understanding of the problem will not suffice.

If Mr. Wright's typical teenager should be asked questions dealing with the differences in stocks and bonds; the gold reserve; balance of trade and foreign competition in trade; our money supply and how it is controlled; the total amount of money spent on education as compared with the total amount spent on candy, chewing gum and tobacco; John Maynard Keynes; the farm problem; or the advantages and disadvantages of our economic system as compared with that of Russia, this teenager would doubtless give another blank look. He would also be blanked at a host of other vital economic problems and subjects that could be mentioned. Yet these crucial economic problems affect all of us almost every day in one way or another; they constitute one of the greatest (if not the greatest) influences on our total American culture. In a culture that hopes to continue as a democracy, it is obviously true that the people must be fairly well informed on the issues and problems that face and threaten that culture. These are in large part economic problems, the solution to some of which may even determine whether our way of life can continue.

Economics have always influenced just about all aspects of our culture much more than our schools have taught us. Only a few of the

better public schools have recognized and consciously emphasized the economic influences that motivated the early migrations to Colonial America. Economic influences from the first greatly affected our total life—political, social, and religious. Charles Beard's *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States* is well known by historians and economists. Yet the economic side of our culture, how it works, and its great influences have always been neglected in the general education of public school students, and even in college for most students. It is highly possible today for a person to go all the way through a graduate school without ever having completed a formal course in economics. This is indeed a lamentable situation.

Somehow we have gotten away with this neglect in the past. Perhaps we have escaped dire consequences in the past because change has for the most part been relatively slow, and has been brought about by what might be termed an evolutionary process. Today change is much more rapid, as everyone knows, and amounts to a revolutionary process. Economic forces are more important and influential than ever in this changing process. We must somehow fill the void left through lack of economic education. We have neglected this in the past and survived; we will continue to neglect it at our peril.

When I write of the great need for economic education, I am not thinking about the kind of economics and the methods of teaching that have been employed in the past for those few students specializing in economics; rather, I am speaking of a simpler, more realistic, everyday type of economic education needed by everybody, and which should be taught from elementary school to college. It should be reality-centered; it should not be built primarily around the abstract and theoretical economics which students majoring in economics must study. I have no quarrel with this traditional-type study; we need more of it, but this should be reserved for those majoring in economics. What I am proposing is what some have called a "five-and-ten-cent-store" variety of economics which would be a necessary part of the general education of all students. This, in our present scheme of things, would generally be from elementary school through the first two years of college. Essentially, it would consist of a rudimentary knowledge of the principles and concepts that make our economic life tick. The methodology employed in this endeavor should permit study that begins

with the concrete, the realities of our present economic life, which would lend some reality, meaning, and motivation even to the average student. After this, the direction of study could move toward the past and toward the more abstract and theoretical aspects of economics to the extent that the students will be able to do so. This popular brand of economic education must be taught definitely with the *students* in mind. This is another way of saying that the content should be *psychologically* organized rather than organized logically or chronologically.

The importance of such a program can be seen through a careful reflection on the bases and causes of most of the political and social struggles in our country and among nations. In almost every such struggle one can, at the bottom, detect the economic motive. The power struggles in the U.S. among politicians (used in its best sense), labor leaders, and captains of industry are usually motivated by economic considerations. The decisions and agreements made with reference to all these struggles affect us. What about the workings, the operation, the nature of these economic factors? Just how are they related to the ordinary person every day? It is the task of schools and colleges to throw more light on these basic economic factors in our general education programs, and how they affect us, so that we may have what Washington long ago called "enlightened public opinion," and so that we may properly heed Jefferson's admonitions, "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free, in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be."

Implied here, of course, is a greater emphasis in teacher education on economics. All future teachers would get some study in economics in the general education program suggested above. All social studies teachers should not only take a major in history but also a concentration which would include history, economics, and some government. Thus, a major group of their studies would be in economics.

I have used several times the term "general education." This means, as used here, that education which all school and college students need in order to live better and fuller lives and to gain insight into, and appreciation of, our total Western culture. It is not oriented toward a vocation. This, then, is the education to which all students are exposed, or, rather, that which we hope they will get. This is distinguished from "special education," a term which I use to denote that

education which prepares one for making a living and which is usually given in the major fields of specialization. It is oriented toward a vocation.

The general approach to this problem has been indicated above. It is not the purpose here to try to show exactly how to improve economic education as to details. Whether and when to add a separate economic course to a given curriculum should be decided at the operational level by those concerned. Undoubtedly, a few courses in economics should be added in high school and college general education programs. It is highly feasible, however, to emphasize economic education, without the addition of formal courses in economics, through the inclusion of learning (teaching) units in established courses. Courses which lend themselves well to the inclusion of units in economic education include courses in history, geography, civics, problems of democracy, home economics, industrial arts, business arithmetic and other subjects in business education, and literature.

If the tone of this article has conveyed to the reader the feeling that the program proposed here would merely serve to aggravate further the problem of "crass materialism" in American culture, such was not intended. It could be argued with some logic that such a program might very well bring about enough understanding of our problems and issues to enable our people to find better solutions to them, and in this way place spiritual values in proper perspective in our educational systems.

Of course, many critics will say that such a thing as proposed here cannot be done. I say that it can be done. If we do not know how to do this at present, then we should get busy and invent the know-how. It would seem that the Committee for Economic Development through its sponsorship of the Task Force on Economic Education has shown us the direction we should take in the report to which reference was made, above.

It is time that economic professors, education professors, curriculum directors (supervisors), school administrators, and last, but not least, school teachers get together and plan a course of action, for an action program is what is needed.

It is encouraging to note that the National Council for the Social Studies has been considering a plan to make a new study of the whole

area of the teaching of the social studies. I would hope that a part of this new study could be just such a new focus on economic education as briefly outlined here. This organization has the influence and potential resources to coordinate such a study. Regardless of whether this agency or some other agency does it, the important thing is to get started. That we should get started now is the burden of my plea.

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What is a Question but a Quest?

GEORGE H. COOKE

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Kent, Ohio

Every Question Deserves An Answer

—*Publilius Syrus*

From time to time certain problems seem to come to the attention of people interested in testing. The use of questions as a device for encouraging thinking, research, and learning is as old as teaching. The questions posed in the following paragraphs do not represent all of the uncertainties of testing, and the discussions may not receive an A from the reader. It can be claimed, with little or no dispute, that at least one person gained insights by exploring his own experiences in an effort to formulate the questions and the discussions.

1. How free are respondents to essay questions?

The respondent is usually free to choose his own words. If the question demands a reproduction of certain knowledges, particular understandings or established relationships, the respondent is trapped. He realizes the teacher has a model on paper or a mental conception of the right answer. His aim then is to come as close to the model as possible. An essay question which has been stated with directions to guide the respondent, to identify clearly the desired approaches, the ground to be covered, is one which restricts the freedom of the pupil. The components of the answer are suggested and it becomes the task of the pupil to follow the outline. There is, however, a degree of respectability in such questions; one-third of the essay questions of a recent collection were of this variety. These restrictive essay tests have severe limitations in achieving the merits usually claimed for this form of educational measurement.

There may be a place for the restricted essay test but it should be realized that such questions are designed to measure sheer knowledge and memory rather than functional understanding. Such questions do not require pupils to organize answers or select their own method of attack.

The sincere protagonist of the essay examination will want considerable freedom for the respondents. The question itself will need to be a novel problem or one with a new approach to the topic or subject. The purpose is to see how the pupils can deal with a knotty problem. There may be many approaches open to the pupil. But the problem should afford an opportunity to demonstrate qualities, abilities, and understandings prized by the person who posed the question or topic. The pupils have freedom to show what they can do toward providing their own organization, their own sequence, their own selection of main topics.

The freer the respondents are, the greater is the problem of grading, but the reading of the answers will be more interesting and more revealing of pupil abilities than if the responses were restricted. A question of this nature will be a challenge to the superior pupil but baffling to the mediocre and difficult for those who do not write easily and fluently.

The degree and kind of freedom experienced by pupils is governed to no small degree by past experiences with a particular teacher. Some teachers may hope and expect an essence of the topic, or the use of certain terms or clichés. Other teachers might be pleased when pupils propose definitions of terms in the question, and state qualifications and criteria for their following statements. These same teachers will have respect for the courageous pupils who strike out into some here-to-fore unexplored area with a balanced attack on the problem. These teachers will seldom have an anticipated answer but are primarily concerned with how pupils attempt to answer the question. They will be interested in their style and level of sophistication, with the clarity of expression, with the sequence with which the pupils marshal and organize their knowledge and thinking. But it is true that different teachers have individual requirements for acceptable responses to essay questions, and wise pupils will recognize these differences in teachers.

2. How critical are the "evils" of guessing and bluffing?

In this troubled world of rapid changes there seems to be less certainty than ever before. Perhaps it is lifelike to guess, to estimate, to propose tentative solutions. The scientists call these shrewd guesses, hypotheses. The investor for quick profits on the stock market, the

weatherman, the bridge player who attempts a finesse, in the final analysis, all make guesses or choices. It is true that such guessing is not blind, but this is likely to be the same on a test. Seldom will a pupil be found whose knowledge and understanding of a question is zero by any measurement.

Bluffing is another form of guessing, and it too is a natural reaction. When is there a speaker fully prepared for his platform obligation, or the professor who is completely ready for his class, or the plumber for his next household job? Instead these people and others attempt to meet their assignments to the best of their abilities. Pupils may not head directly toward an acceptable response, but they realize that if they start thinking and writing, these activities may lead toward a suitable response. In the essay response the teachers should be interested in the processes used by pupils in dealing with thought provoking problems. If the question is a novel problem, the teachers should expect some amount of fumbling toward an adequate response. Pupils may, like most of us, need to explore their mental resources, gather momentum and to a degree, evaluate possible approaches.

However, an essay test in some school subjects is not the place for vague, irrelevant obfuscations on the part of pupils. Pupils should receive credit for clear, concise replies and be criticized for failure to meet head-on the question. The terms guessing and bluffing are not very desirable terms in measurement and evaluation and seldom describe the real situation.

3. How objective are objective tests?

Objectivity in educational measurement refers only to the extent that performances, products, or tests may be graded with consistency. Objectivity refers mainly to scoring and grading. Misinterpretations are frequently made by the less sophisticated concerning this term. The naive may suggest that an objective test is a scientific product, or is an infallible instrument, or is one devoid of any human touch or foible.

It seems to be forgotten that teachers make the following decisions concerning objective tests: When shall the test be given? What is to be the nature of the questions? How many questions? Which will be acceptable answers? How important is the test? What will be the level of difficulty? These are not objective but are subjective judgments.

Seldom will a professional testmaker, let alone a classroom teacher, be able to construct a test and a key without having a number of questionable exercises or debatable answers. When test exercises are seriously considered by pupils, and if they are given the opportunity to criticize the questions and answers, there will be errors or weaknesses brought to the attention of the testmaker. These comments on the objective tests should not lead one to think that essay questions are beyond the same analyses and criticisms.

The question of objectivity in making choices and reacting to the problems of life is realistic. People who require an answer to a question will frequently admonish the respondent to be objective in his reply. Responses are always a product distilled from the total experience of the person being questioned. It is almost impossible to separate the intellect from the total background. This same condition exists when teachers grade responses to tests except when scoring a perfectly made objective-type test.

The most important choices in our daily living, and the decisions made by leaders at all levels cannot be reduced to making these choices in a purely objective manner.

Finally, there is no royal road for teachers or for any other leader to the perplexing problem of evaluating the efforts and the status of people. There is no escape from subjective judgment. There is no infallible set of balances by which the worth, the relative position, or the progress of pupils can be weighed or measured. Since teachers will be forced to judge pupils, considerable evidence should be available to afford adequate support for final decisions and judgments.

4. Are essay tests diagnostic and projective techniques?

If pupils are required to write on a good question and the replies are carefully reviewed, these outcomes are possible. The teachers are able to secure a general idea of the vocabulary of the pupils. The abilities of the pupils to write will be revealed. The degree to which pupils can recall and make good use of knowledge will be apparent in an essay test. Such a test may also bring to the teachers' attention certain personal attributes, e.g., creativeness, boldness, ingenuity, careful thinking, as well as the opposites of these qualities. In high school it is

quite possible to find pupils who are unable to express their ideas or knowledge in a paragraph.

The nature of the question will be a factor in determining its projective values. If pupils are directed to feel free in their responses and there is a high degree of rapport in the class, emotional and intellectual reactions may be revealed. Pupils will respond with their personal beliefs and will tend to reveal their true feelings if their previous responses have been treated with sympathy and understanding.

Essay tests should result in a written record of pupils thinking their way through a problem. Their efforts should be of interest and concern whether the answers are acceptable or not acceptable. Good essay questions are directed toward a large chunk of subject matter and the replies will be an indication of their grasp of large ideas and concepts. Furthermore, a properly marked test will have an abundance of comments by the grader. These comments should be clear and complete statements rather than a single word. Since teachers have encouraged the pupils to write their personal opinions and to reveal their true feelings, the teachers have an obligation to respond in similar fashion.

Diagnostic, intuitive, analytical reading of free response to a novel problem should provide new insights of pupils. Reading examinations in this manner supersedes the usual reading, more properly called, marking or correcting papers.

5. Do classroom tests reflect the functional understandings of the subject or topic by the teacher?

The answer is an unequivocal yes. This answer is as strongly affirmative for testing as it is for teaching and has the same limitations. The teacher who has a strong background, in all that this implies, ought to know what is important enough for a test question and what is of fringe importance. The teacher with a rich background should have within his own understanding the main principles and large concepts. These teachers should be able to devise test exercises which will probe the depths of knowledge and understandings of pupils. Teachers with keen subject matter insights are likely to be constantly thinking of problems and applications not only for teaching but for testing.

Teachers with an inadequate knowledge and understanding are limited to the superficial structure of the subject. Test exercises

involving applications of principles to novel and everyday experiences will be less likely to originate with teachers who lack adequate background. Teachers who lack a functional understanding of a subject may not recognize a different but a right answer to an objective question or may not be able to follow the reasoning of a pupil who has made a choice which is different than the key. The same handicap may also prevent a teacher from perceiving the virtue and worth of a virgin approach to an essay question. In short, the pupils' responses may be beyond the intellectual scope of the grader. It is human to be suspicious or wary of an innovation. Thus these teachers may either miss the merit of a response or penalize the pupils because the answers are unforeseen.

6. Are facts in an area of study to be considered of major importance?

Yes, there is nothing more significant than important facts in an area of study. Most of these facts have been established through great efforts on the part of research workers. To some extent there is a negative feeling against mastery of subject matter or of the established facts. It should be apparent to all that facts do change just as thinking and understanding change, but at the moment the recognized knowledge and the accepted facts are the bases for thinking. Pupils with true understanding recognize the values of a rich background of significant facts. Pupils and others may object to the teaching and testing of facts. In a sense, these objections point out to the discerning on-looker the superficiality of the alleged understandings claimed by learners.

Teachers need not apologize for teaching and testing for knowledge of facts. It is hoped that both teaching and testing will go beyond knowledge of facts. Facts are not unrelated to understanding. A test requiring knowledge of significant facts which are imbedded in meanings are valid materials for testing. Facts which have been taught as having rich implications in meanings and relationships are valid indications of understandings. This process is not complete proof of understanding, perhaps there is no complete proof, but such a process will provide the first step toward proof.

7. Have teachers and others made a fetish or god of consistency or objectivity in grading papers, performances, and products of learners?

Yes, as a result of the studies in the early decades of this century in

this country and in England, objectivity in grading has been emphasized beyond its value. The discussion of question three provided a working definition of objectivity in grading. The scoring of pure recognition tests is almost one hundred per cent objective. In fact, a clerk or even a machine can score certain tests with complete accuracy and unimpeachable objectivity. Teachers cannot be limited to tests graded by machines if they wish to make a complete evaluation of the total growth and status of pupils. Even so, research workers have obtained high correlations among graders of English compositions by controlling the methods of grading.

Teachers are assumed to be persons of integrity and of good intentions but human. They read papers, view performances, and examine products. These same teachers exercise judgment, give consideration to the total situation, have insights and finally make records via marks, grades or comments. If such teachers are required to prove the accuracy of the grades and comments, there is little recourse except to reaffirm the qualities utilized. Just as a person decides to invest in a certain stock, when questioned as to whether his choice of stock was right beyond all doubt, he could only respond in terms of his experience, his judgment and his insights.

To require a teacher to regrade an answer to a true essay question, or to regrade a whole paper, is asking the impossible. While the papers do not change the teacher undergoes considerable change. It must be assumed that teachers grade the work of pupils with skill and integrity. More confidence is needed by teachers in their ability to show good judgment in evaluative processes.

8. Have schools placed too much emphasis on classroom testing and on the total school program of measuring the many human qualities of pupils?

There are growing reactions against the rip-tide of tests forced upon schools and upon pupils. New tests are added to the programs and none is eliminated. Colleges and universities are overwhelmed by applicants and are forced to screen out those with less potential ability. Various foundations are searching for talented pupils and tests are the chief instruments of identifying them. The people in guidance work want more information in order to do more effective personnel work.

Teachers are urged to use tests issued by state test bureaus and to be alert to the advantages of frequent checks in the academic progress of pupils. There are other pressures which have resulted in an over-emphasis in some schools of measurement to the detriment of or distraction from teaching and learning.

Schools should examine their total program of testing, grade by grade. Are too many tests given in a particular grade level? How much use is made of test results? Is it necessary to give the same tests to all pupils? Must all of the tests be given during school? Do teachers give tests as punishments or to keep pupils busy? Do the tests contribute to the welfare of pupils? Are the tests used to glorify the school or staff?

Tests used in the wrong manner may give unwarranted emphasis on intra-class competition. This is not to overlook the value and merits of competition but it should be controlled. All tests should not be used for the purposes of classifying, segregating, and ranking pupils. There are more significant values to a total program of evaluation. It is claimed that tests are needed to motivate or drive pupils to study and that tests offer proof of progress. Whether tests are good motivators depends more on the quality of the tests and their concomitant use than on the threat of a test. Perhaps teachers are looking for easy and quick methods to secure evidence of pupil growth and proof of teaching success.

Tests should be viewed as implements whose purposes are to aid in carrying out the functions of the schools. Like all instruments placed in the hands of amateurs, damage may be done not only to the stock but to the instrument or technique. Practitioners of tests and measurements who have thought rigorously about the field no longer believe in the power of a single test to perform miracles concerning the complex organization called man. But there is little doubt in the minds of these people concerning the values of a valid test as contributing to the solution of some of the educational problems.

9. Do pupils learn while being examined in school subjects?

Yes, if this were not true, one of the important values of testing would be lost. Pupils tend to learn whatever is given emphasis in the tests. The pupils are faced with test exercises and must search into their own resources for responses. The desired response may not be ready

for use, but by thinking, by reorganizing their knowledge, and by reviewing understandings, they arrive at a response; thus new learning is created and emerges via a test response. Perhaps the question is a novel one which forces them to consider how they can use their organized knowledge in a new way. The pupils are required to consider the best means of analyzing the question; they must derive meanings from the terms of the question and mentally weigh their tentative solutions. This is also learning.

A test whether by intention or not tends to be a summation of the teachers' concepts of significant ideas. Pupils are or should be directed, encouraged and led to bring together in a test what was here-to-fore unrelated laws, facts, and sequences to a point of usefulness and to a level of understanding not previously achieved.

10. Should teachers experiment with a variety of evaluative procedures?

Yes, the best and final method of measuring progress or achievement has not been discovered or perfected. Teachers may believe that they have found the one and only way to do this important work. They should remember that teachers urge pupils to consider new and different approaches to problems in life. How could teachers ever do a better job in this respect than to demonstrate their own ability and interest in creativity than by trying out a new test question or devising a new measuring technique or modifying an existing one?

All pupils do not respond equally well to the same form of evaluation. There are hundreds of forms of the objective test and an unlimited number of ways of stating essay problems. Procedures for evaluating pupils should not be limited to pencil and paper tests but include products, performances, oral examinations, and observation of procedures in laboratory courses.

Many people are critical of questions, tests and evaluative procedures, but few do anything about improving the situation. A variety in the test questions or the evaluative techniques will be of interest for pupils and tends to develop a certain amount of desirable pupil adjustability. Further consideration of improving this part of teaching responsibility should contribute to the personal growth of teachers and advance the status of the teaching profession.

Team Teaching at North Texas State University, 1960-61¹

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In a recent publication² the problem of team teaching was discussed. It raised these four problems, among others: (1) the structure and design of a team; (2) criteria for selection of team participants; (3) probable effects on children; and (4) understanding of the dynamics of small groups.

At North Texas State University an experiment was carried on during the year of 1960-61 in the training of social studies student teachers. Part of this experiment was the use of a team of teachers. This article is to explain the way in which the team operated in reference to the points above.

First of all, the structure of the class should be explained. The class was composed of seniors who were majors in a social science and were preparing to teach or majors in secondary education with a teaching field in one or more of the social studies. The pattern for certification at North Texas State University leaves three courses—adolescent psychology, curriculum development, and methods of teaching—in addition to student teaching for the senior year.

The three classes were fused so that the pupils had difficulty in determining where one left off and the other began. Three textbooks were used as basic materials for this course. The classes were also accelerated so that they lasted nine weeks, instead of eighteen. The class lasted from 8 a.m. until 3 p.m. with breaks for lunch and coffee. During the last nine weeks of the semester the pupils went out into the public schools to do their student teaching. Since this experi-

¹ Funds for this experiment were made available by the Faculty Research Council, North Texas State University.

² Charles M. Clarke, editor, *Teacher Education and the Public Schools* (Dubuque, 1961), pp. 86-91.

ment lasted all year, there were two groups of pupils—one in each semester.

The teaching team was one full-time faculty member and one graduate student. The criteria for selecting the team participants were based upon individual and social psychology concepts, such as those outlined by William Clark Trow in the fifty-ninth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.³ These are: personality, position, role, and skill.

The individuals selected had to have the types of personality which would not conflict. The most important emphasis was on flexibility in contrast to rigidity. In this particular case, team teaching was new to each individual. If one individual had been rigid in his thinking, or if he had been too dominant, the experiment would not have worked. Also, the personality of each had to include a certain amount of confidence in contrast to anxiety. Each had to believe that the experiment would be successful. Individuals who tended toward extroversion, instead of introversion had a better chance of success with this experiment, which was new not only to themselves, but also to the students. The enthusiasm which the team evidenced was better communicated to the students through democratic procedures, involving extroversion, than would have been possible for introverted individuals.

The position of each member of the team had to be fully understood and utilized. In a college atmosphere, the prestige hierarchy is clearly marked for faculty and for students. Even in a democratic classroom, utilizing a democratic team of teachers, some one must take the lead. In this case, the full-time faculty member did so. The students, however, understood that each member of the team was a teacher and that they owed the same duties and respect to each member of the team. Competition for student favor could be detrimental to a team effort.

One advantage of the structure of a full-time faculty member and a graduate student is inherent in the prestige hierarchy. Simply because one member of the team is a student, there is a better rapport between that individual and the students in the class.

There had to be an ascribed role for each of the team members. Possibly, the success of the experiment is measured in the correlation

³ Nelson B. Henry, editor, *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups* (Chicago, 1960), pp. 30-50.

between the ascribed and the achieved role. Each, and both together, must be initiator, contributor, information and opinion seeker and giver, elaborator, orienter, evaluator-critic, energizer, procedural technician, encourager, harmonizer, gatekeeper, and expediter, standard-setter, group observer, and follower.⁴ This can only be done through thorough planning and close cooperation. A great deal more planning must be done when two individuals are involved than when only one has the responsibility of a class.

The fourth criterion for selecting team participants was that of skill. In order to be skilled any teacher must be conversant with subject matter, sociology, psychology, and methods of teaching. A teacher cannot play the role without change. He cannot teach unless his pupils change. The skill a teacher shows is in changing his pupils so that they enjoy being changed.

In this particular situation of teaching social studies student teachers, it was determined that the team should have as broad a background as possible in those areas which should make a teacher skillful. The full-time faculty member had a Ph.D. in social foundations of education. In his undergraduate work he had a major in anthropology and a few courses in history and geography. In his graduate work he had two years of anthropology and two years of sociology. In fact, the total number of hours in social science was greater than the total number in psychology and education. He also had teaching experience in secondary school, adult education, and at the college level. The graduate student had a bachelor of science in education degree with a major in social science, a master of arts degree in education and economics, and twenty-eight years of teaching experience as classroom teacher, principal, superintendent, college professor, dean, and educational researcher. A great portion of that time was devoted to the teaching of history, government, and economics.

The probable effect on children of any teaching is dependent upon the nomothetic—institution, role, and expectation or normative dimension of activity in a social system—and the idiographic—individual, personality, and need-disposition or personal dimension of activity in a social system. In this particular incident, the team effort was directed

⁴ Kenneth D. Benne and Paul Sheats, "Functional Role of Group Members," *Journal of Social Issues*, IV (Spring, 1948), pp. 41-49.

toward the change of attitudes of these student teachers. Many came into the classroom with excellent academic backgrounds but with poor attitudes toward teaching. Some thought that psychology, curriculum development, or methods of teaching had nothing whatsoever to do with them. In fact, it was believed to be a waste of time.

There were other problems. Some individual seemed to have the roles of aggressor, blocker, recognition-seeker, self-confessor, playboy, dominator, individual-help seeker, and special-interest pleader.⁵

These problems have to be solved through the dynamics of small groups. For example, one attitude fostered by the team was that no social study could be taught unless the other social studies were used. This was to combat the idea held by some pupils that no social study, except the one in which they had majored, was important. Examples of teaching history, emphasizing elements of geography, economics, government, and sociology or anthropology had to be presented. The problem of team teaching was finding which teacher was best qualified to present the materials most effectively.

The goals for the class had to be very definitely outlined. Because the pupils were not used to a truly democratic atmosphere in a classroom, they had to be guided, but they helped in deciding the goals to be accomplished and the methods of doing so. It was decided that informal discussion would be the best method to use. Although the faculty member took the lead in these discussions, generally, it was gradually assumed by the students. When the discussion touched on areas in which the graduate student was better qualified than the faculty member, he became the "expert." When a lecture was presented, the person whose background best qualified him for that area presented it. The same is true for demonstrations and other methods of teaching. When the class did group work, both members of the team became part of the group, or served as consultants as needed.

Because of the experimental approach, the class had to be "taught by ear" to a large extent. Generally speaking, however, the first task was to win the confidence of the pupils. When rapport had been established, democratic procedures applied as far as possible seemed to be much more effective than autocratic procedures would have been.

⁵ Benne and Sheats, *op. cit.*

From the attitude tests given, from remarks made by the pupils, from the remarks made by high school cooperating teachers and administrators, and from the observations made during student teaching, these methods seem to have been successful.

There were, of course, difficulties. One of these was that the graduate student, because of taking classwork, could not devote full time to teaching. The strain of his classes, however, made a difference in the quality of his teaching. Actually, the faculty member had a much easier time psychologically than did the graduate student.

In order to facilitate understandings between members of the team, they should probably be assigned to the same office so that planning can more easily be accomplished. The rapport between the team members is *the* most important part of team teaching.

The dynamics of small groups is important in any type of teaching. When pupils have to adjust to two personalities in the same classroom, it is much more important.

There should be specific recommendations for team teaching. First, there should be careful planning by the administration and by the participants on the team. Even small items may be misunderstood or wreck the team effort. Second, members of the team should be carefully chosen both from the viewpoint of academic background and from the viewpoint of psychological adjustment to the pupils and to each other. As wide an area as possible, within the area covered by the class, should be covered by the academic background of the teachers. A wide range is preferable in this case instead of overlapping. Of course, the depth of knowledge should also be considered. Third, the best possible methods of teaching should be employed. The dynamics of group work should be very carefully studied. Fourth, there should be a great deal of planning so that the pupils may have the advantage of team teachings, instead of teaching by separate individuals.

If these suggestions are followed, a great deal may be accomplished, and the whole may become greater than the sum of the parts. That is, the team approach should provide a much better situation and more should be learned by the pupils than in separate classes taught by separate individuals because of the correlation and integration of materials, methods, and ideas.

The Organic Association of Literature

SOCRATES A. LAGIOS
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Animals are curious; and man is a curious animal who has the faculty to think. Having this endowment, man is forever asking of himself—Who am I? What am I doing here? Where am I going? The various religious denominations afford man an opportunity to come to rest with these ever-present enigmas through faith. Religion's theme is that when man has spiritual faith, he is rewarded with the ability to visualize, with proper perspective, his wants, needs, and desires in the temporal world.

As all religions structure their doctrines on a premise based on faith which does not have empirical support but allows intangible spiritual benefits, the teacher, likewise, strives for the inward growth of man but utilizes objective scrutiny of ideas through the use of man's reasoning powers. Jonathan Swift felt that man was not an animale rationale but rationis capax. To a certain degree, he was correct; some men are rational animals, a breath of everlasting eternity is their mark, be it through literature, art, or music. The rationis capax are not only capable of thinking, they do so. The difference is that they are contemplating in an unorganized fashion or their aims are undesirable. The teacher's responsibility is to organize his subject matter so the student, using his reasoning powers, will note that the common problems of man—birth and death, love and hate, and the other life-encompassing situations—are similar, regardless of time and place. To expose the pupil to man's problems through the literature of the past and the present so that he might evaluate his thoughts and actions to meet himself and his fellowmen in a more sensitive fashion is a task of no mean proportion. But it is a situation which must be met if man is to reach the supreme state of life where faith and reason do not

contradict but support each other in enabling man to respect the worth and dignity of all mankind.

It is tempting to consider whether the study of literature can be organized on a somewhat scientific plane, in which the aim is not to strive for objective results but to structure a Gestalt situation whereby the student will make subjective evaluations of the readings. This technique permits the student to speculate over the style of the authors in developing their characters, and it also involves the student with the strength and weakness of the characters, which in turn might lead the student into some insight of his own makeup.

The development of the novel (using Daniel Defoe's *Moll Flanders* as a starting point) can be structured to circumvent the customarily linear approach, based on the chronological sequence of the publication date, by substituting an all-inclusive pattern so that all novels can be considered in terms of how they have added to the growth of this prose form as it stands today. In the customary novel course offered in colleges, the earlier novels are evaluated in light of what has been accomplished up to their publication date and not with any thought as to how they fit into the present day's adaptation of the novel. Samuel Richardson's *Pamela* is a decided improvement over Daniel Defoe's *Moll Flanders* because Defoe's one-dimensional character development of Moll Flanders falls by the wayside with Richardson's introduction of Pamela, who is a three-dimensional character. Henry Fielding's satire *Joseph Andrews* has as its forte not only more than one complete character, but *Joseph Andrews* also paints a panoramic scene of England's many social classes during the Eighteenth-Century. The prevailing academic course treating the development of the novel scrutinizes it for salient features in view of what has been achieved up to that point. The corollary is that the novel is studied within a limited retrospect; a graph of this common tendency would bear out its linear growth, along with its attendant chronological signposts.

1722	1740	1742
<i>Moll Flanders</i> (Novel of incident)	<i>Pamela</i> (Novel of character)	<i>Joseph Andrews</i> (Social Satire)

The study of the novel might be more fruitful if its evolution were

structured within an improvised Gestalt context which permits the treatment of the novel from the whole (its present day development) to its component parts (all earlier novels). Sir Herbert Read favors the point of view that the authors' more sensitive and perceptive use of the technique of the "interior monologue (the whispered secrets of the self)"¹ in developing their characters is the most paramount manifestation of the novel within the last two hundred years. Assuming that the 'interior monologue' theory were the whole, each novel can be measured in light of what it has added to that special adaptation. This arrangement organizes the novel so that the student can compare Mark Twain's techniques of presenting Huck Finn's social and moral dilemma to the devices that Samuel Richardson employed to depict Pamela's similar problems. Huck Finn's 'whispered secrets' bring out his fear of his 'Pap,' stemming from an unhappy father-son relationship; this fear motivates Huck to escape from his father's clutches, at which point the plot interest is furthered because it is while Huck is attempting to flee from his Pap that he decides to help Jim gain his freedom. Pamela's 'interior monologue' not only delineates her uncertainties about Mr. B's intentions, which was Richardson's method to push in the forefront the plot interest centered around Pamela's battle within herself to maintain her high moral standards, but the many letters of concern and helpful advice that Pamela and her parents exchanged also exemplify a happy family bond.

Aristotle's Association Theory can be utilized to a certain extent.

Accordingly when one wishes to recollect, this is what he will do; he will try to obtain the beginning of movement whose sequel shall be the movement which he desires to reawaken. This explains why attempts at recollection succeed soonest and best when they start from a beginning (of some objective series).²

This, however, presupposes that the person involved has been exposed to the whole series and someone is only triggering off a catalyzing agent which will bring the complete picture into focus once again. Aristotle did not concern himself with any method as to how the

¹ Herbert Read, "Literature," *Man's Right to Knowledge*. 2nd Series (New York: Columbia University Press, 1955), p. 93.

² Aristotle, "De Memoria Et Reminiscentia," *The Parva Naturalia*, trans. J. I. Beare, Vol. III of *The Works of Aristotle Translated into English*, ed. W. D. Ross (Oxford at the Clarendon Press: 1931) p. 451b.

elements which will be recollected might be organized. Adhering to Aristotle's Theory, if an elderly gentleman were to watch a television program which was presenting a spelling contest for high school students, it might renew his recollection of how he, as a high school student, once won a spelling bee. This is not necessarily so because the organizational pattern of the television program might not be similar enough to the elderly gentleman's youthful experience for him to make the transfer. If the winner of the television spelling program received a book as a prize and the elderly gentleman had received a book there is a stronger possibility that he might remember his childhood contest. However, if the victor in the television show were offered the same book which the elderly gentleman had received, there is a much stronger possibility that he would remember his childhood spelling success, especially after he recollects the dominating elements of a happy school day.

Aristotle's Theory overlooks a few significant elements. Not only does he fail to come to grips with the problem of how the material which is still being studied can be associated before its study is completed, but he neglects the organizational factor. His theory does have some direction because he does include the beginning and the end of a series, but the organization of the material is not stressed because Aristotle puts all of his attention on the 'beginning' of a series. Recollection can be facilitated when the conclusion of a series is planned for and not only the 'beginning of movement.' Another disadvantage is that the series must be completed before his theory can be introduced. Aristotle's approach bars any evaluation of the material being read until it is completed; for a student to suggest an appraisal of the material without having a picture of the whole at his disposal precludes the possibility of his making a mature assessment.

The Gestaltists, however, accounted for the critical consideration pertaining to the organization factor. "Our conclusion is that association depends upon organization because association is just an after-effect of an organizational process."⁸ Aristotle stresses the 'association' of the material and the Gestaltists applaud its 'organization.' In addition, the Gestaltists embrace the belief that the organized form has within it one element which overshadows the rest. If the organization

⁸ Gestalt Psychology, trans. W. Kohler, (New York: Horace Liveright Co., 1929) p. 299.

of the material is the crucial factor, there might be some merit in centering the development of the novel around the 'interior monologue' theory because it provides the student with the privilege of seeing a picture of the whole pattern with each and every novel that he reads. Since the 'whole' is always in focus, this admits the possibility of starting the study of the novel from any point in its development.

Incorporating the Gestaltists' two main principles of association—the organization and the prevailing element—it might be just as effective, if not more so, to utilize the results of a given series rather than its 'beginning.' The luxury of being able to place each element in its context of the whole carries with it certain advantages. The compass is an invaluable guide to mountain climbers because it, at all times, makes it possible for them to realize in what direction they are traveling; the 'interior monologue' approach can serve as a comparable friend to the student of the novel. Parson Adams' deep reflections on family life in *Joseph Andrews* are also pondered over by Clym in Thomas Hardy's *The Return of the Native*. That a student can look beyond the superficial differences between Parson Adams and Clym by disregarding the chronological setting, the clothing, and the dissimilar vocations to note their common concern about the qualities which man needs to make for a bountiful married life is not an experience of light importance to growing students. In addition, the students will be able to ascertain the authors' various interior monologue techniques.

This deductive approach permits the presentation of the contemporary stage of a development (interior monologue theory) as a hypothetical conclusion. There is recorded in the annals of history strong evidence that man is always in the process of readjusting himself to the repercussions of a more valid scientific hypothesis which supersedes a theory that was previously in favor. For many centuries it was an accepted fact that the earth was the center of the universe until Copernicus proved that the sun and not the earth is at the hub of the system. Mankind, today, is still living within the reverberations of another displaced hypothesis—Matter was deemed to be indestructible; the atom was acknowledged to be the smallest indivisible particle known to man. Man now possesses the knowledge to break down the atom—an Atomic bomb is the end product. These realignments of man arise

when the status quo of a scientific theory is jostled. If the domain of science, with its inductive logic, can afford to have its hypotheses re-evaluated whenever a more reliable theory is formulated, it might be that the field of literature can profit from establishing certain literary assumptions based on deductive reasoning. No literary postulation would be inviolate; in fact, it would invite more scientific-like scholarship because the hypothesis would have to be lucid and valid or its shortcomings would be exposed without any difficulty, as the premise would be molded within a logical framework if it is to be worthy of being placed on the same plane as a scientific supposition. The longevity of some literary premises formulated on deductive reasoning, such as the 'interior monologue' theory, might even equal that of some scientific hypotheses structured on inductive reasoning. A point which should not go unattended is that the student should be disciplined to think in a logical pattern, be it inductive or deductive, and to suggest a deductive approach in the study of literature is not without some worthy considerations.

Of the five agents that Aristotle believes to be pertinent to his Association Theory, two are of concern in the contemplated theory: "cause and effect"⁴ and "likeness."⁵ Their relevancy is that they are incorporated in this Gestalted premise—the 'cause and effect' principle is reversed and the novel is studied from its present stage (effect) into the past (cause); the 'likeness' of the 'interior monologue' is pin-pointed as the authors' consideration of that technique is noted in the respective novels.

To expose the student to the knowledge of the past is desirable, but it is only a means and not an end. One of the goals of teaching is to prepare the student to meet his responsibilities and obligations to himself and society; the study of the literature of the past permits the student to visualize as many facets as possible of his own fears, doubts, and strengths, so that he might through his own 'interior monologue' process weigh the possibilities and act in view of what he might believe to be the most fruitful explanation of his situation. The present is the battleground and to prepare the student to think and act judiciously

⁴ Samuel T. Coleridge, *Biographia Literaria* (New York: Harper and Bros. Co., 1854) p. 219.

⁵ *Ibid.*

by placing the present in its proper perspective within the whole history of mankind does suggest some merit.

Not all of the association theorists are in concert as to its implications. In contradiction to Des Cartes' point of view, "That contemporaneous impressions . . . recall each other mechanically,"⁶ the Gestaltists believe that association does not result *a priori*, but only *as* a planned consequence of an attempted organization of the whole, "Whenever we associate A and B we experience them, not as two indifferent things, but as members of one organized group."⁷ This does not necessarily mean that any organizational pattern will crystalize into the desired results. Professor Ivor A. Richards depicts the problem quite clearly:

It is a first principle of psychology that the partial return only of a situation may reinstate the whole What seems to decide the dispute more than anything else is the character of the original connections between the parts.⁸

Since the Gestaltists have proven that a structured organization is necessary to catalyze the return of the whole, the teacher must make certain that what he organizes is worth organizing. To approach the novel from the point of view of the evolution of the 'interior monologue' cannot be disregarded as too vapid. However, there is always a present danger when someone attempts to channel a student's thoughts before he has the opportunity to draft his own, but the 'interior monologue' theory does enable a pupil to envisage the authors' ever-present interest in the fervent arena of man's mind, as typified by Samuel Richardson's *Pamela* in perspective along with the Twentieth-Century writers similar concern in that living topic, such as Ernest Hemingway's *The Old Man and the Sea*. This teaching technique induces the student to see the world-scene and himself more objectively and to search T. S. Eliot's statement:

The existing monuments form an ideal order among themselves, which is modified by the introduction of the new (the really new) work of art among them. The existing order is complete before the new work arrives;

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 211.

⁷ Kohler, Wolfgang, *loc. cit.*, p. 292.

⁸ Ivor A. Richards, *Principles of Literary Criticism* (London: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1926), p. 182.

for order to persist after the supervention of novelty, the 'whole' existing order must be, if ever so slightly altered; and so the relations, proportions, values of each work of art toward the whole are readjusted; and this is conformity between the old and the new. Whoever has approved the idea of order of the form of European, of English literature, will not find it preposterous that the past should be altered by the present as much as the present is directed by the past."

Not of unmitigated importance to any organizational pattern is the corollary—What is the necessary degree of organization that is needed to give the theory substance? Professor Alfred N. Whitehead's scientific analogy is apt.

In scientific training, the first thing to do with an idea is to prove it, but allow me for a moment to extend the meaning of 'prove.' I mean—to prove its worth. Now an idea is not worth much unless the propositions in which it is embodied are true. Accordingly an essential part of the proof of an idea is the proof, either by experiment or by logic, of the truth of the proportions. But it is not essential that this proof of the truth should constitute the first introduction of the idea.¹⁰

If the field of science grants itself this leeway, the disciples of literature might share in this privilege; the proof of the 'interior monologue' idea can be held in abeyance until the student concludes his study of the growth of the novel, at which time a disciplining exercise might be his evaluation of the 'interior monologue' premise in view of the novels considered. This, of course, minimizes any unqualified acceptance of the premise.

To present the student with the 'interior monologue' supposition at the outset of the study of the novel does cue the student; it is also an improvisation of Aristotle's Association Theory because the 'conclusion of an objective series' (the present stage of a continuous development) is substituted for Aristotle's 'beginning of an objective series.' There is value in exposing the student not only to knowledge about causes but also effects, because transfer of learning does not follow without preparation. The desired transfer must be taught. Professor J. M. Stephens writes, "There seems no question that transfer may be in-

⁹ T. S. Eliot, "Function of Criticism," *Essays*, (Tokyo: Faber and Faber, Ltd., 1935), p. 1.

¹⁰ Alfred N. Whitehead, *The Aims of Education and Other Essays*, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1929), p. 5.

creased by deliberately teaching to that end.”¹¹ To build up Sir Herbert’s ‘whispered secrets of the characters’ in one novel and to follow that premise in the subsequent novels holds true to the principle of transfer.

In essence, Sir Herbert’s postulation is a means for a student to see beyond the novel in hand to a possible all-embracing interpretation. To substitute an idea which threads itself through the novel prose form in preference to the usual chronological approach does frame a picture of the whole with its supporting cornices. To involve a series of novels with one predominant idea certainly agrees with Professor Whitehead’s remark, “Let the main ideas which are introduced into a child’s education be few and important, and let them be thrown into every combination possible.”¹²

The offering of literature can be arranged in a scientific fashion to further fingerprint Matthew Arnold’s belief that “. . . all learning is scientific which is systematically laid out and followed to its original sources, and that a genuine humanism is scientific.”¹³ The ‘interior monologue’ premise falls within the shadow of Mr. Arnold’s statement because it is organized, and the effect is only the sum of the causes in the same manner that it can be scientifically proven that water is composed of two parts hydrogen and one part oxygen.

Robert Browning wrote, “. . . a man’s reach should exceed his grasp,
Or what’s a heaven for?”¹⁴

Man through his faith can touch the heavens; this faith is not based on objective scientific research, yet its results are as enduring as the achievements of science. When man studies the literature of his fellow-man, he is invited through the portrayal of characters into the deep recesses of many minds where ideas are born. The eternal hope is that while man is introspectively exploring the ideas and actions of the characters, he might learn something about himself so that he might come to an understanding of man’s most perplexing problem—Who am I? What am I doing here? Where am I going?

¹¹ J. M. Stephens, *Educational Psychology* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1951), p. 465.

¹² Whitehead, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

¹³ Matthew Arnold, *Selections From Matthew Arnold’s Prose Works*, ed. W. S. Johnson (Cambridge: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913), p. 93.

¹⁴ “Andrea del Sarto”

Guide to Developing a Course of Study

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INTRODUCTION

Events and circumstances of the past half century have dictated the necessity of a drastic revision in the curriculum of American secondary schools. Accelerated by Sputnik I, the work is well underway, but accompanying side effects have produced more problems than solutions, not the least of which relate to curriculum organizational procedures. To keep pace with the spontaneous demands of an ever-changing curriculum which exacts, among other things, uniformity of direction, the Curriculum Division of the Jackson, Mississippi, Separate School District turned to a program of closer coordination among curriculum workers who write the courses of study used in the school district. An immediate outgrowth of the program was a flexible guide by which curriculum committees can progress with greater ease toward a common goal, and yet exercise the varying degrees of resourcefulness needed for effective work at different grade levels and in different subject areas. The purpose of this paper is to outline the above guide, evaluate its operational effectiveness, and hazard a prophecy concerning its future existence as a functional tool of curriculum development.

PROCEDURE

It was obvious at once that if such a guide were to become a serviceable reality, its general structure would have to comply readily with three unique standards, namely: (1) the needs of the Jackson schools, (2) existing research in the field of curriculum development, and (3) acceptable levels of grammar and composition. In addition, it would need to project these standards in a manner flexible enough to merit incorporation into the courses of study. With the above criteria in

mind, a schedule was formulated to explore the following areas: (1) the structure of the course of study, (2) the format of the unit of work, (3) fundamental rules of grammar and composition, (4) the overall format of the course of study manuscript, and (5) appendixes, to include sample pages of a course of study. Each of these areas is outlined here in the order given above.

THE GUIDE

The course of study. The first division of the guide contains a general description of the course of study as it would normally appear in finished form. Because “curriculum,” “course of study,” and “unit of work” frequently are used erroneously and interchangeably in conjunction with curriculum work, this section of the guide is prefaced by clear definitions of the terms to insure proper application by course writers. Next is a brief analysis of particular pages in the course of study devoted to the (1) foreword, (2) table of contents, (3) introduction, (4) philosophy of the department of instruction, (5) units of work, (6) tables and illustrations, (7) reference matter (footnotes and resource material), (8) appendixes, and (9) bibliography. In each case, specific attention is given to format and style in order to avail consistent form to all course writers, regardless of grade level or subject area. For instance, page headings, numbering, and footnote and bibliographical entries are all standardized and illustrated in detail.

The unit of work. Since units of work constitute the heart of the course of study, an entire section of the guide is consigned to the format and content of the unit of work. Following a workable scheme of outlining, adopted for use throughout the course of study, this division launches directly into the composition of the unit of work. Each unit is described as having six parts: (1) overview, (2) desired attainments or objectives, (3) instructional development, (4) time allotment, (5) evaluation, and (6) resource material. Instructional development is divided into two subdivisions to accommodate (1) the contents of the instruction (arranged in a column on the left-hand side of the page)—that is, a naming of the subject matter and related material to be used in the unit—and (2) the activities (arranged in a column on the right-hand side of the page), or an illustration of the various methods

and techniques to be employed in teaching the content material. The overview is a short paragraph about the general purpose for which the unit is written; the desired attainments or objectives subdivision states the immediate aims and objectives that are to be accomplished in the unit; time allotment indicates the estimated time needed for completion of the unit; evaluation states the manner in which the unit is to be evaluated to determine pupil growth; and resource material consists of a bibliography of textbooks, films, filmstrips, or other material to be used in teaching the unit. Finally, a method of documenting films and filmstrips in the resource materials section of the unit is demonstrated.

Grammar and composition. Division three of the guide is not intended in any sense to be a full survey of grammar and composition. It is presented in an attempt to make available for ready reference succinct examples of language problems likely to be encountered by course writers. After emphasizing the importance of a good dictionary for use in course of study preparation, this section of the guide enters into a general discussion of grammar and composition. Included, also, is a detailed treatment of punctuation, capitalization, abbreviation, numerals, syllables, and contractions, accompanied by an illustrative examination of problems peculiar to each of these areas.

The manuscript. It is superfluous to reassert that all published research should follow certain specifications with respect to form and style. The course of study manuscript being no exception to the rule, division four of the guide is assigned the task of standardizing for writers such technicalities and processes as size of paper, margins, revision, proofreading, and typing. This section of the guide is intended to serve as a valuable and handy means of expediting production procedures for all concerned.

Appendixes. The final division of the guide is composed of four appendixes displaying samples of (1) an outline, (2) a table of contents for one course of study, (3) a supplementary table of contents for several courses of study bound into one manual, and (4) excerpts from a unit of work. These appendixes are included for the purpose of giving curriculum workers a more comprehensive view of each of these parts of the course of study.

EVALUATION

Since its inauguration this fall, the guide has been put to use by committees now involved in developing or revising at least a dozen courses of study in the areas of homemaking, mathematics, music, art, social studies, physical education, foreign language, industrial arts, and language arts. Also, copies were made available to conferees at the October, 1961 Conference of Superintendents of Schools at Duluth, Minnesota. Far-reaching effects are yet impossible to determine, but early reactions indicate a decided trend in favor of the guide as a successful (1) coordinator, (2) time-saver, and (3) guideline for teachers who are called to serve on curriculum committees for the first time.

CONCLUSION

Adolescents continue to react to the learning processes with vastly diversified ranges of ability, interest, and maturity. The only sensible approach to instructional problems arising from these individual differences is a correspondingly flexible curriculum, undergoing constant change, and bound together with unified and purposeful planning. Although the present study is intended to represent but one phase of a giant step toward better organizational procedures in curriculum development, it is this investigator's contention that the above guide, or a modified version thereof, can be of primary value to the administrator who shares the view that coordination and uniformity of direction are basic to functional curriculum planning.

Purposes and Aims of International Exchanges of Children's Art¹

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As early as the 16th century Francis Bacon in *The New Atlantis* conceived of international trade in learning as one means of bringing into some understandable form all the knowledge the world had to offer. An increase in the interest given to this form of international correspondence has received the thoughtful attention of a number of individuals concerned with international understanding. The 1959 *Conference on International Exchange of Children's Art* sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education published in its report² the suggestion that a central agency should be established to coordinate efforts in this work. I recently conducted a limited survey of those agencies which sponsor international exchanges of children's art. The *Report on the Questionnaire of International Exchanges of Children's Art* will reveal the generally accepted belief that the potentialities of these exchanges are great. As Dr. Edward A. Richards has stated³ a successful program would require constant study and evaluation and among the items which call for repeated examinations are teacher, student and community reactions *and* international reactions. The way in which such exhibitions are handled, however, plays an important part in the extent to which they can be effective along these lines.

In undertaking a program of international exchanges of children's art there are, I believe, certain hypotheses implicit. Among these I

¹ *Report of Conference on International Exchanges of Children's Art*, prepared by Mayo Bryce and Ralph Beelke, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, January, 1959, p. 29.

² The statements in this article are conclusions drawn as a result of a report on a questionnaire submitted to organizations sponsoring international exchanges of children's art. The complete report of the questionnaire may be obtained through interlibrary loan from the Library of the University of Minnesota. The origin of the concern grew out of some discussions held at the Department of Art Education at the University of Minnesota.

³ *Op. cit.* p. 6.

would include the following: 1) International exchanges of children's art, in principle, create a desirable international climate. This hypothesis in turn raises certain questions. What kind of climate do they create? How do they create the climate? Do they, as exhibitions on an international level create an interest in the exchange itself as distinct from the works of art which make up the exhibition? It is possible that the individual work of art may become submerged by the much grander group of which it is a member. Later, individual items may capture the attention of observers and may reinforce or alter the original impression. This sequence of reactions to an exhibition suggests important areas of concern for the designers of international exchange of this type. 2) International exchanges of children's art tend to create an atmosphere of *understanding*. If they do create an atmosphere of understanding what kind and quality is this understanding and how do they succeed in creating it? As valuable as the sentiment which can attach itself to a child's work of art may be in securing sympathetic attention, this sentiment should not be confused with understanding. 3) It is tacitly agreed that exchange exhibitions are a form of propaganda. *Under such circumstances it must be assumed that either the objects in an exhibition or the mere fact of the exhibition itself possess qualities which are communicated to the viewer.* Exhibitions of a technological type—farm machinery, tools of various trades and so forth—probably possess exactly those qualities which are readily apprehended by most individuals. The appeal of a good tool or the appeal of a handsome conveyance is, I suspect, a more influential one—by virtue of the function it serves—than that which might be associated with the art work of children. In the latter case the effort on the part of the viewer to go beyond superficial appreciation of the work to the significance of the product in the light of the psychological needs of the producer, or to the significance of the social order which allowed or fostered this form of expression is possibly too great for the vast majority of viewers. The subjective character of children's art tends to foster a greater degree of conjecture even among informed people than would an exhibition of useful artifacts. We may ask ourselves these questions. Are international exchanges of children's art communicating their own peculiar significances, or are they dependent to a greater degree than other international exchanges upon the extra-

significance of the exhibition, as an exhibition, the reputation of the various sponsors or some other factor of the exchange?

Areas of Probable Influence

I think it doubtful that art work of this type alone and unreinforced makes a powerful enough statement to influence to any profound extent the attitudes of the people who see it, unless those viewers have been previously familiar with the problems involved. Individuals who have had contact with young people have observed that children manage to communicate to their peers their desires, needs, and emotions, and also tend to illustrate these in symbolic form, but I have heard of no instance where the art product of one child has communicated its message to another child. It is not unusual for the very young child-artist after the work is completed to change his mind about the intended meaning of his work. The work of art itself—at least for the very young child—apparently communicates very little, if anything at all, to a child of comparable age. If this is true, one of the possibilities of communication on the international level has been eliminated.

Allowing for levels and qualities of communication of this sort it is possible to assert that the degree and kind of insights gained from communication between the child artist and adult observer rest primarily with the kind and degree of professional training and interest held by the observer. Theoretically, professional training should determine the *extent* or depth of communication, while interest might determine the *kind* of communication. It is to be expected that the artist, art-educator, classroom teacher, psychologist and non-professional would approach the phenomenon of the child's art from differing points of view.

The great variety of possible responses offer us quite acceptable reasons for sponsoring, in principle, such exchange exhibitions. This acceptance, however, does not begin to suggest the extent to which such exchange exhibitions should be sponsored. There are more factors to be considered. Among these is the probability that such international exchanges of children's art are of even greater value in areas of influence quite divorced from professional, educational or psychological

interests which might be as easily and as effectively realized by means of colored photographs.⁴

Some Real Issues Arise

The value of an exhibition of original works of art over that of photographs, however excellent, may be appreciated as a matter which concerns prestige. The psychological advantage which an exhibition of originals has over an exhibition of photographs lies, I believe, in the implied concern the sponsor has for the intelligence, interest and taste of the observer. Other considerations include adequate matting, identification of artist by name, town, and state, sex and grade and the identification of the work by title, medium, and artist's message of explanation if this were thought either necessary or desirable. It should not be unusual to expect information of this type to appear in the language of the host country or countries as well as in English.

In the area of *Interpretation and Instruction* there is apparently an absence of adequate interpretational facilities and personnel in those countries to which exhibitions of children's art are sent. An exhibition of children's art, by itself, is a poor medium of communication to other than professionally interested people, and it is by no means certain that all professionals will possess the necessary points of reference to make what they see meaningful. I would suggest that exhibitions of children's art be accompanied by explanatory literature in the language of the host country and reinforced by radio, TV, and newspaper announcements; that the exhibitions be accompanied by personnel adequately equipped to explain and discuss the significance of the work being exhibited, and in the absence of the child-artist himself a sound and color film, either dubbed in the language of the host country or captioned in that language, graphically showing the child at work, at home, at school, and at play.

By such means the work of art may be placed in a context which will foster a better and more complete understanding of what art in the

⁴ There may be some objection to this statement on the grounds that the art media itself contributes an aesthetic quality inherent in the work of art which would be seriously altered, if not entirely lost, even in excellent photographs. This argument, however, would carry little weight in an analysis based on symbol usage and general conceptual realization which concerns the professionally interested person. The existence and effective use of illustrated text and journals should emphasize this point.

American school system can really mean. A similar pattern of procedure may obtain whenever such an exhibition is designed around a special subject matter, age level, vocational interest, or erudite professional concerns.

In addition to the methods mentioned above I would also propose large, well-planned traveling programs on the order of "Project Hope," encouraging a warm person-to-person contact and leaving room for a burgeoning self-interest on the part of the areas and people to which these exhibitions are sent.

Systematic "On the Spot" Evaluation

The real worth of these suggestions and those which follow hinge on our knowing the kind, quality and extent of influence these exhibitions really have. An opportunity to pilot a trial exhibition with "built-in" evaluation procedures would be welcome, and I suspect that the results of such an experiment would be fruitful and suggestive of areas of improvement as well as directions in which to move to increase our effectiveness in this area.

Some Future Possibilities

It appears to me that the principle of international exchanges of persons and artifacts is one of the most valuable tools we have for growth and development in international understanding. I consider it important that we evaluate our present accomplishments and that we build into any future developments of these activities methods of on-the-spot evaluation in order to provide ourselves with sufficiently valid information to keep such a program vital and effective.

It would not be extravagant to consider the establishment of a mobile unit equipped with audio-visual aid—16 or 35 mm sound and color films and cameras—plus, of course, other equipment required for acceptable demonstrations, slides arranged in lecture units and in the absence of sufficient or adequate personnel lectures recorded in the language of the host countries, original works of art in small exhibitions numbering between 15 and 30 items. It would be necessary to outline an itinerary for the mobile unit or units which would cover a certain geographical area thoroughly in a specified period of time. One could employ pre-event advertising purchased where possible from TV and

radio as well as newspapers. One might also consider enlisting the help of ministries of education and certainly establishing some reliable means of estimating the effect of the program.

More elaborate plans might include establishing an American summer school program which would include all phases of our education beginning with the elementary and including undergraduate college programs. This kind of summer school would differ from others in that it would be located as was "Project Hope" on board an ocean liner scheduled to visit at one time or another all of the important world seaports. For such coverage more than one vessel would probably be needed. Such a project possesses the advantage of bringing to foreign countries a part of the American scene which many of those visiting it probably would never see and would also provide the American students with the distinct advantages of 1) an increase in the total time spent in study and 2) the advantage of foreign travel.

Persuasion and instruction need not be unpleasant and I am convinced that these proposals can be implemented if we make use of the talent, the technical resources and the interests which lie dormant. The suggestion that a clearing house of information on exchange programs and persons interested in them as well as a central agency for their effective organization be established may be the beginning for a very fruitful program.⁵

⁵ After this article was written an A.P. release out of Glasgow, Scotland indicated that an unnamed British shipping company has revamped one of its out-moded ships to accommodate classrooms, and other facilities for classroom instruction in preparation for what this release termed an "educational cruise."

Climatology for Guidance

JOHN F. OHLES

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Much of counseling literature stems quite naturally from large school systems where good or poor guidance operations flourish in an atmosphere somewhat detached from petty internal jealousies and aloof from pressures of local downtown interests. But what of the countless smaller communities where, with a paucity of other referral sources, the challenge is greatest for follow-through and finis to problems of youngsters? How grows the counseling concept in whistle-stop and rural market place?

For any living thing to grow, flourish, or just exist there must be adaptable soil, at least a balance with natural enemies, and a favorable climate. The educational process in general needs such satisfactory conditions; but no area is so dependent on climate, so reliant on external factors as is the province of the school counselor.

It is the contention of some that the guidance program is of such a nature that persistence and proof of the product will, in the tradition of Horatio Alger, always triumph. For administrators, teachers, or counselors to be carried away with this enthusiasm and faith can lead to a fate worse than death—a straw man guidance program that appears on faculty rolls, annual reports, and even school letterheads, but never fulfills its responsibilities. It might be better to have no program at all than one defrauding children, parents, and public by carrying the name but not the duties of a service purporting to challenge basic deficiencies in attitudes, behaviors, and emotional or psychological construction.

The soil for educational growth is the individual teacher, the separate classroom. Here, where pupil-teacher contact is intimate, where dynamics of the learning process demand certain limited pupil reactions in order to function, where needs for guidance arise and results of counseling are observable and meaningful; here is the most critical factor in the success of counseling.

But, if it is such a critical area of concern, if so fraught with dangers of teacher ignorance and distrust or the sacred aura of "my classroom," so too can the average teacher be easily won-over to a cooperative relationship. It is a simpler matter today to find faculty members eager to put into practice guidance aids than it had been in years past. It is more likely that the teacher will prove willing to give counselors an opportunity to question, probe, and experiment. Ordinarily very little is required in "objective" evidence to ease, if only slightly, the pressing burden of daily teaching. Any perceptible improvement in the classroom may be noticed and appreciated by the teacher. The soil—the faculty—is seldom sterile and foreboding; should it prove to be so, however, sympathetic administrative leadership can easily cultivate it and render it receptive.

If guidance has any natural enemies it is most likely to discover the more formidable among school principals. Many a traditional principal resents the intrusion into what he considers his personal preserve. In the pre-counselor era the principal (if anyone) was the referral resource. Many did an excellent job by rule-of-the-thumb, based-on-experience counseling. Rare, indeed, might be those aware of the subtler factors, emotional or psychological undertones.

For some obscure reason (perhaps based on their own evaluation of success in handling all and sundry problems, perhaps because of the concern that as supervisors they are expected to excel in capability and experience over all subordinates) some principals insist on personally reserving jurisdiction over most problems more significant than routine election of courses or conferences concerning poor grades. The fact that trained counselors have been included in the faculty or that involvement in complex problems is time-consuming seems to have little effect in a realignment of duties.

A principal, unsympathetic or hostile to counseling, can effectively block many counselor efforts that involve several teachers, individual relaxing of rules, change of classes and/or teachers, or similar experiments.

This is no ogre we are picturing, no frustrated power-hungry tyrant—rather a somewhat insecure individual who simply does not accept the role of the counselor or the philosophy of guidance. In general, he

is likely to be a successful principal, a good disciplinarian, a staunch defender of the status quo in educational philosophy and practice.

In our typical school structure we have a means of enlisting the aid of reluctant principals through the superintendent who must have either initiated or continued guidance services. Surely there can be no more logical conclusion than an administration sponsoring a guidance program is also a staunch supporter of it.

In many cases this assumption may be correct and leadership of the superintendent should serve to alleviate problems of delineation of duties and responsibilities. The atmosphere about the schools that is so much the result of educational philosophies and personnel practices propounded by the "front office" shall determine whether the counseling program is planted free of a principal's shade, whether it is given sufficient schoolhouse air and sunlight.

But there are superintendents who do not care to provide a healthy atmosphere for counseling. These are, quite frequently, business managers and public relations specialists long before they are educational leaders. Guidance philosophy is of relatively little importance to these practical individuals whose ear to the ground is sensitive to vocal critics of educational "frills" but less receptive to the silent assent characteristic of satisfied parents. They hire counselors because it is the "thing to do," not because they are convinced of the value of a guidance program.

In this situation there is no out, no legitimate means of persuasion. Alternatives are there, of course: degradation to a concept of aimless psychometry or handmaiden to administrative programs, search for a healthier climate, or perhaps a convenient scapegoat for critics of the schools.

Let our hopeful and idealistic counselor breathe deeply of the prevailing philosophy ere he braves storms of ignorance and skepticism in some guidance vacancies. Let him take care lest his own integrity and professional skills wash up as flotsam and jetsam on a rocky shore of rugged, vicious school politics.

Counseling cannot exist as a fad, a meaningless appendage to school administration; rather it must be a vital, growing service protected by a healthful and enlightened educational climate.

PEABODY BIMONTHLY BOOKNOTES

Selected Professional and Cultural Books for ■ Teacher's Library

MARCH, 1962

Booknotes Committee: Susan B. Riley, William A. FitzGerald, and Norman Frost, Chairman

Secretary to the Committee: Janette Brach

Annotators for This Issue: Don Adams, William Alexander, Myrtle Bomar, John E. Brewton, Frances Neel Cheney, Mabel Corry, Becky Daughety, Norman Frost, Stuart Gilmore, William Griffin, Clifton Hall, Katherine Hall, Louis Nicholas, Susan B. Riley, Chiles Van Antwerp, Ned L. Warren, J. W. Whitlock, Lawrence Wrightsman.

Children's Literature

BARKER, MELVERN. *Shipshape Boy*. Scribners, 1961. unp. \$2.95.

Learning how to keep ■ tugboat shipshape is ■ big job for young Tommy. But the rewards are worth the effort—commendation from his father, owner of the tug, and from the captain of an ocean-going liner pulled by the tug, a stowaway puppy for his very own.

BLOUGH, GLENN. *Christmas Trees and How They Grow*. McGraw Hill, 1961. 48p. \$2.75.

The life cycle of a tree is described here in a simply graphic manner for middle elementary reading. Beautiful drawings appear on every page and enrich the text, which is given in a lively descriptive style with narrative background. A nice contribution to nature study for beginners. Recommended.

BRENNER, BARBARA. *Barto Takes the Subway*. Knopf, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

This is the story—told in poetic prose—of Barto Garcia's first subway ride. The manner of telling reveals the happiness and excitement experienced by Barto while the instructive photographs highlight the details of the trip. An informative book which reads like ■ book of adventure has been created by the author and photographer.

CATHERALL, ARTHUR. *Arctic Sealer*. Criterion, 1961. 160p. \$3.50.

After their home has been destroyed Jon, a sixteen year old Norwegian boy and his two uncles try to recover their fortunes in one sealing trip to the Arctic sealing grounds. The description of the Arctic wastelands and the rescue are good. High adventure for boys.

COATSWORTH, ELIZABETH. *Noble Doll*. Viking, 1961. 45p. \$3.00.

A touching story of an elderly lady, making a scanty living by sewing, and saved from inevitable financial disaster by the unexpected sale of an outlying farm supposed to be of no value. The setting is in Latin America, and the doll is a treasured reminder of the past. For children about 7 to 11.

DAVIS, LAVINIA. *Island City*. Doubleday, 1961. 256p. \$2.95.

Here are five engaging and carefully authenticated episodes from the early history of New York City, beginning with an intriguing adventure of a Dutch girl and an English Quaker boy in 1660, and the four following dramas are related to the descendants of these two—the last episode occurring in 1870. This method of linking historical events gives a fine, if somewhat complicated continuity. Upper elementary reading.

DENZER, ANN. *Tony's Flower*. Vanguard, 1961. unp. \$2.95.

This charmingly told story is of an Italian boy living in sight of a grassy park, restricted for certain children. Tony had a beautiful lily, and when a flower was needed for the park he donated it, and then had many friends. A delightful story for children in the kindergarten or lower grades.

DHOTRE, DAMOO. *Wild Animal Man*. Little, Brown, 1961. 154p. \$3.50.

All the excitement, challenge, and danger inherent in training wild animals to perform are here in this story of a skinny little boy who ran away from his home in India to join his uncle's circus and later became one of the world's greatest animal trainers. Ages 12 and up.

DONOVAN, JOHN. *Little Orange Book*. Morrow, 1961. unp. \$2.00.

In this little orange book a very young boy tells about another little orange book that is the story of two fat rabbits and a wolf named Hooper. This miniature story within a story has an unusual combination of simplicity and humor that is just right for young readers.

FLETCHER, HELEN. *Big Book of Things To Do and Make*. Random House, 1961. 64p. \$1.95.

Not only will children rejoice in finding "something to do" but mother and baby sitters will pray for blessing for Helen Fletcher. Not all the things will work for anybody, some will for everybody. Just right for preschool and primary.

GILMORE, EDITH. *Stepping Stones of Love*. Westminster, 1961. 191p. \$2.95.

In Jane Green, a young Quaker, girls will find a kindred soul. Still in high school and troubled by a sense of complete inadequacy, she must cope with the many readjustments that face her after her mother's death. Recommended; has good values and insights into the Quaker beliefs.

GUILLOT, RENE. *Mokokambo, The Lost Land*. Criterion, 1961. 176p. \$3.50.

The story starts in Paris, but the main

setting is the African jungle. Thirteen year old Thiery is the hero, or maybe his turtle is. The story starts with the improbable and proceeds to the fantastic in a way to delight upper grade children who enjoy Tarzan.

LEHR, DELORES. *The Tender Age*. Lothrop, 1961. 205p. \$3.50.

Moving to a new town over shy Laura attracts the attention of two fine boys and her popularity rises. Then an accident leaves her unable to walk and she draws back into her shell. Finally through church participation, in a youth group and Jim's love, she finds herself and returns to happiness. Well-written romance for teen age girls.

MILNE, ALAN ALEXANDER. *Pooh Song Book*. Dutton, 1961. 148p. \$3.95.

For the admirers of Christopher Robin and his associates, this is superb. Don't miss it.

PEASE, HOWARD. *Mystery of Telegraph Hill*. Doubleday, 1961. 216p. \$2.95.

Those acquainted with other Tod Moran books will know that they can expect tense situations, real puzzles and dramatic solutions. Junior high readers will not be disappointed in this story set in San Francisco, with overseas overtones.

PERRIN, BLANCHE. *Thudding Hoofs*. St. Martin's Press, 1961. 190p. \$3.25.

A touching, human interest story of a boy and a horse and all the exciting things that can beset one in the stable environment. The boy faces many decisions and problems but demonstrates much determination and ability to face up to growing up. The author has presented this well in predominately conversational style.

PRIESTLEY, LEE. *Second Look for Avis*. Messner, 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

A well written and thought provoking story of Avis Barton who at twenty-two takes on the responsibility of supporting her frivolous mother and sister on her teacher's salary. Her rebellion from her matriarchial mother for the man she loves leads to surprising truths about herself, and her mother and sister. Recommended for high school girls.

QUIGG, JANE. *Trolling with Susie Bennett*. Macmillan, 1961. 28p. \$2.25.

Susie was a friendly six year old and it was natural that she would offer to row the boat for an old man who lived near by, so that he could go fishing again. This story tells about their adventures and how they caught the biggest fish he ever caught. Second and third grade reading.

RICH, JOSEPHINE. *Doctor Who Saved Babies*. Messner, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

The biography of Ignaz Semmelweis, the Hungarian doctor who struggled in the early 1800's to have his rules of cleanliness accepted by hospitals. He was especially interested in the maternity ward and trying to cut down on the mortality rate there. A carefully detailed, well-written biography although the many pages describing the filthy conditions, sickness, and death make it more adult.

STEINER, CHARLOTTE. *Tim and Tom Play Ball*. Macmillan, 1961. unpaginated. \$3.00.

This interesting story for children 5 to 7 is really misnamed. Tim and Tom play ball on the first page, but then the ball at once goes into the house. The interesting part is the artist's apartment they enter on the invitation of a bird, and what delightful things happen before they say good-bye.

SUMMERS, JAMES. *Karting Crowd*. Westminster, 1961. 172p. \$2.95.

Three teen-age boys go into business making a kart, or Kangocart, a vehicle of horrible imbalance—light with heavy horsepower. From this venture stems all their troubles. How they are finally solved brings teenagers to the climax and the point of the story with a few laughs thrown in. This book would be interesting to some teen age boys, but not to all.

SWIFT, HELEN MILLER. *Second Semester*. Longmans, 1961. 244p. \$3.75.

Carrie Ford and Ginnie Newhall are very disappointed when they find themselves roommates at Newhall College. The close relationship that grows between them, plus the improvements in their appearance, personality, and outlook on life make this a

very heartwarming story. It gives much insight into the problems of college life which many girls have to face.

TURNGREN, ANNETTE. *Copper Kettle*. Prentice Hall, 1961. 175p. \$2.95.

This charming story of life of children in Sweden of about one hundred years ago has been so much beloved by children that this re-issue is particularly welcome. Mari, the younger daughter of pastor Nordblom is the central character, around whom are centered events involving Jenny Lind, many relations and the tenants and servants. For ages 8 to 12.

TURNGREN, ELLEN. *Hearts Are the Fields*. Longmans, 1961. 184p. \$3.50.

This book set in Minnesota gives a realistic picture of farm life in the early part of the century. It is the story of the Enbergs, a Swedish American family and the father's dreams for his five children that make him dominate their lives and almost cause them unhappiness. Very good for teenage girls.

WILSON, BARBARA KER. *Fairy Tales of Persia*. Dutton, 1961. unpaginated. \$1.50.

These four tales from Persia are charmingly told and the illustrations are a delight. The printing is on the same pages as the illustrations and sometimes difficult to read. The first story is "Sohrab and Rustem," a tragedy, reminiscent of the tales from Greek mythology. The stories are suitable for children in grades 3 through 6.

VOIGHT, VIRGINIA. *Treasure of Hemlock Mountain*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 182p. \$2.95.

Pretty young Charlene Fairhill dreams of becoming a singer, but a summer in a remote cabin in Maine with her father and new friends changes her. The events of the summer enable her to realize how petty her ambitions are and gives her treasures for her life. Will be enjoyable to girls.

Education and Psychology

BROGAN, PEGGY AND FOX, LORENE. *Helping Children Read*. Holt, Rinehart, 1961. 330p. \$3.75.

A good "how to reference." Many seem-

ingly helpful and practical suggestions for aiding elementary schools and classroom teachers to organize for individualized learning are included. No references or bibliographical entries are included to allow the more critical reader to follow up the available evidence on the efficacy of these suggestions.

BYERS, LORETTA AND IRISH, ELIZABETH. *Success in Student Teaching*. Heath, 1961. 274p. \$1.35.

This might well be called a handbook for student teachers so pointed and practical is the treatment of all aspects of the student teacher's experience and preparation for teaching. Chapter 4, Achieving Democratic Control, is an excellent discussion of what is usually a number one problem. Direct, concise, and clear this should prove a valuable guidebook to success in student teaching.

GRUBER, FREDERICK. *Foundations for a Philosophy of Education*. Crowell, 1961. 322p. \$5.75.

An interesting and somewhat novel approach to the subject. Part one deals with philosophical foundations. Part two with leading educational theorists, and part three with "the education of man." Recommended as a textbook to be used at both graduate and undergraduate levels.

MITCHELL, HERBERT S. *Manual for School Accounting*. Interstate, 1961. 83p. \$3.00.

This is the second book recently published which attempts to adapt generally principles of governments accounting to public school funds. Inadequacies include (1) insufficient illustration of necessary forms and procedures; (2) some deviation from nationally accepted standard receipt and expenditure accounts, and (3) lack of uniform coding of objects of expenditures from function to function.

MORRIS, VAN CLEVE. *Philosophy and the American School*. Houghton, Mifflin, 1961. 492p. \$6.00.

An introduction to the philosophy of education that is philosophically oriented. For effective use the book will need to be taught by someone who knows philosophy—which is all to the good.

VAN TIL, WILLIAM. *Making of a Modern Educator*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 252p. \$1.95.

Collection of essays, most of them previously published as columns, articles and other short pieces, which describe the author's professional experiences over some 25 years and present his point of view about educational issues.

Health and Physical Education

BRYANT, PAUL. *Building a Championship Football Team*. Prentice Hall, 1960. 244p. \$4.95.

A well done and interesting book of football by one of the proven masters of modern football coaching. The author, in very interesting and readable style, sets forth those things which combine to make for championship football.

IRWIN, LESLIE. *Curriculum in Health and Physical Education*. Brown, 1961. 382p. \$4.50.

This is a new copyright on one of the better curriculum books in the field for more than 15 years. This is a rather all inclusive text incorporating all three disciplines of the field showing interrelationship as well as showing program development for schools and colleges. It is a good text for the curriculum course.

JENNY, JOHN. *Physical Education, Health Education, and Recreation*. Macmillan, 1961. 332p. \$5.00.

An especially well planned and easily read book. The author presents the interrelationship of the three disciplines in an attractive and meaningful manner. Should serve a very useful purpose as foundation material in the field.

JONES, GOMER. *Offensive and Defensive Line Play*. Prentice Hall, 1961. 171p. \$5.25.

This is a very strong publication on all aspects of line play. The author, one of the finest coaches in football, has put into print a wealth of theory and practice. The book is well illustrated and well written.

WILLGOOSE, CARL E. *Evaluation in Health Education and Physical Education*. McGraw Hill, 1961. 478p. \$7.50.

The book, very fitting for a text, treats the whole area of evaluation from the standpoint of health education and physical education. Many tests for physical and social efficiency are presented and the nature, aims and criteria for selections and use of proper measures are included. This publication pulls together and presents the area of evaluation in very usable terms.

Library Science

WHITE, CARL. *Origins of the American Library School*. Scarecross, 1961. 211p. \$5.00.

Leading personalities and individual library schools are used to illustrate the processes which formed the library school between the 1883's and the 1920's. The tremendous growth in number, size, and complexity of libraries and the demand for specially qualified library personnel helped to bring the schools into existence.

Literature

AIKEN, CONRAD. *Selected Poems*. Oxford Univ. Press, 1961. 274p. \$4.75.

A compact volume of Aiken's own selection of his most representative poems and a valuable record of the work of a gifted writer who helped to bring about the poetic renaissance in the second decade of this century and who still occupies an undisputed place among the authentic poets of America.

FIEGENBAUM, LAWRENCE. *Four Complete Classic Novels*. Globe, 1961. 598p. \$3.76.

This collection of four favorite novels should interest boys and girls from Junior high age up. The print is good and will not scare students away from these loved classics. Each is illustrated with scenes from the movie which make it more familiar, and the notes about the author and the novel add to interest, background and understanding.

FULLER, EDMUND. *Four American Biographies*. Harcourt, Brace, 1961. 779p. \$3.72.

Three Biographies and one autobiography combined in one volume meet a growing need in this field at secondary school level. Included are Carl Sandburg's *Abraham Lincoln: The Prairie Years*, Cather D. Bowen's *Yankee from Olympus*, Helen Keller by Van Wyck Brooks, and the *Autobiography* of Mark Twain.

GREENOUGH, JAMES, AND KITTREDGE, G. L. *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*. Macmillan, 1961. 431p. \$1.95.

The paperback reprint of this class for more than half a century is a real service to English teachers. One of the earliest books in English to attempt the popularization of historical semantics, it is still one of the most interesting and useful.

HONAN, PARK. *Browning's Characters*. Yale, 1961. 327p. \$6.50.

A welcome study of the techniques used by Browning in creating the characters in his dramatic monologues. The author moves from the early Sordello to the later more skillfully done poems pointing out such obvious techniques as situation and diction and more subtle ones such as rhythm and punctuation.

HYNES, SAMUEL. *Pattern of Hardy's Poetry*. Univ. of N. C., 1961. 193p. \$5.00.

A convincing presentation of the author's theory that Hardy's poetry is based, both thematically and structurally, on the poet's belief in the deterministic and ironic nature of man's life. Even eccentricities in Hardy's style are used to reflect irreconcilable elements. A well written study.

SHAW, RALPH. *State of Library Art* v. 4 p. 1-5. Rutgers, 1961. 373p. \$8.00.

Classification systems, gifts and exchanges are the subjects separately treated in this survey of the literature, summarized without editorial comment, and with copious footnotes.

SHELTON, EDWARD. *This Mortal Moment*. Dorrance, 1961. 63p. \$2.50.

A small collection of poems conventional in theme and form, but pleasing and at times genuinely lyrical.

Music

KAGEN, SERGIUS. *On Studying Singing*. Dover, 1960. 119p. \$1.25.

This is a reprint of one of the most sensible and wisest books on the subject in the English language. It is completely non-technical, so can be read with pleasure by the non-musician, but should be in the hands of every student and prospective student of singing.

WECHSBERG, JOSEPH. *Red Plush and Black Velvet*. Little, Brown, 1961. 372p. \$6.50.

Nellie Melba, whose story is told here, was one of the greatest queens of song of the end of the 19th and first quarter of the 20th centuries. A prima donna to her fingertips, she had many admirable qualities, but strict accuracy in her assessment of her own and her rivals achievements was not among them. In spite of some effort to be judicious and unprejudiced, author Wechsberg has not quite succeeded, and is sometimes irritatingly unreliable as to facts and judgments as his subject was. However most opera lovers will not mind this, for he captures the spirit of his subject and her times.

Recreation

BURNS, WILLIAM A. *Exploring for Fun*. Dutton, 1961. 127p. \$3.00.

The book presents valuable information for the explorer including planning, equipment and details of direction finding and other explorer techniques. This is an interesting and well written presentation and worthy of the outdoorsman's interest.

GARRET, MAXWELL. *Fencing*. Sterling, 1961. 128p. \$1.95. Athletic Institute Series.

This book is an attractive and useful publication for the fencing instructor or student. Developed mainly through photographic illustrations. The pictured skills are authentic in every detail and bring special value to the material.

JOHNSON, JAMES. *Anyone Can Live Off the Land*. Longmans, 1961. 121p. \$2.95.

A practical and interesting account from first hand experience of how to survive in the woods. Many interesting skills are presented on such things as building fires in rain without matches, fishing without tackle, hunting without equipment and others. This is interestingly presented and well worth reading for pleasure as well as information.

SHAPIRO, MILTON. *Beginner's Book of Sporting Guns and Hunting*. Messner, 1961. 179p. \$3.95.

A very interesting and well done presentation on firearms and their use. All the authentic and technical terminology is made simple and many questions are answered for the hunting and gun enthusiast. This book is good for the beginner and the experienced and presented in a pleasing fashion.

Reference

Rand McNally's Road Atlas. Rand McNally, 1961. \$1.95.

Revised road maps of all fifty states, the ten provinces of Canada, and of Mexico are presented. There are larger scale maps of 170 cities and 15 National Parks. Mileage tables and approximate driving times are given between larger places, and 24,000 places are indexed for location and 1960 population is given.

LANEY, AL. *Prep Schools*. Doubleday, 1961. 128p. \$5.95.

This book contains a concise summary of the educational opportunities available at fifty-seven selected preparatory schools. It should be helpful to parents interested in enrolling their sons in a preparatory institution. The author, a professional newspaper reporter, has included a resume of the history, tuition, and a number of faculty members for each school listed.

Science and Math

BERTIN, LEONARD. *Boy's Book of Engineering Wonders of the World*. Roy, 1961. 144p. \$3.75.

An interesting account of bridges, hydro-electric stations, radar installations, nuclear reactors and the like written for boys in Britain. The quality is such that American boys will learn much about both engineering and writing styles in another land. For secondary school reference.

STOUTENBURG, ADRIEN. *Beloved Botanist*. Scribners, 1961. 192p. \$2.95.

Warm engaging story of the eighteenth century Swedish scientist who developed scientific names for all of the plants—Carl Linnaeus. Supplementary reading at the intermediate level.

TRACY, R. C. AND JENNINGS, H. L. *Handbook for Technical Writers*. Am. Technical Society, 1961. 134p. \$3.50.

A helpful manual having special interest to technically minded students. Conceivably ■ fresh motivational approach to writing.

Social Science

DILLON, MERTON. *Elijah P. Lovejoy*. Univ. of Ill., 1961. 190p. \$4.75.

This is ■ scholarly, very well written biography of one of the central figures of the early years of the abolition controversy. The publishers also deserve a compliment for the superior job of bookmaking which it represents.

ELLSWORTH, RALPH AND HARRIS, S. M. *American Right Wing*. Univ. of Ill., 1960. 50p. \$1.00 Occupational Papers, #59.

A scholarly study of the extreme conservatives on the present scene in American life. The facts are clearly presented, the text is well written, and the author states, "We have not been either for or against this body of opinion."

PEACOCKE, MARGUERITE DOROTHEA. *The Duke of Edinburgh*. Roy, 1961. 128p. \$2.50.

An interesting authoritative account of Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, from his obscurity as a child to Queen Elizabeth's consort which has put him constantly in the public spotlight. It gives insight into the daily life of the Prince and shows that his position requires much more work than many of us

may think. Should be of interest to all teenagers.

SEWELL, WILLIAM AND DAVIDSEN, O. M. *Scandinavian Students on American Campus*. Univ. of Minn., 1961. 134p. \$3.50.

One of a series of valuable studies done by ■ committee on the Social Science Research council concerning foreign students on American campuses. In this study the authors are primarily concerned with analyzing the social and academic problems of a small group of Scandinavian students at the University of Wisconsin.

List

CRAM, DAVID. *Explaining Teaching Machines and Programming*. Fearon, 1961. 86p. \$2.00.

GOLDMAN, FRED. *University Adult Education in the Arts*. Center for Study of Liberal Education, 1961. 72p. \$1.00.

STERN, MILTON. *People, Programs, and Persuasion*. Center for Study of Liberal Education, 1961. 101p. \$1.50.

Text

PARKER, JAYNE. *My Speech Workbook*. Book I. Interstate, 1961. 151p. \$2.00.

This book is a remedial workbook for the "s" and "z" sounds. It includes practice exercises to introduce the sounds to the teacher or parent as well as the child, thereby aiding carry over. Each sound is developed from isolation through syllables, words, sentences, and finally to conversation. Speech activities are plentiful and motivating.

RICE, LOUIS ALBERT AND OTHERS. *Personality and Human Relations* 2nd ed. McGraw Hill, 1961. 218p. \$3.50.

This is a student oriented text suitable for a high school level course in the Psychology of Mental Hygiene. Topics include study skills, broadening one's interests, rules of dress and manners, and speech and conversation.

PEABODY COLLEGE ALUMNI MEETINGS Spring 1962

<i>Date</i>	<i>Place</i>	<i>Function</i>	<i>Time</i>
ALABAMA Birmingham	Tutwiler Hotel Steel & Civic Rooms	Luncheon	12:00 N
FLORIDA Miami	Dreamboat Cruise and Breakfast		7:00-9:00 A.M.
GEORGIA Atlanta	Dinkler Plaza Hotel Plaza "A"	Friendship Hour	4:00-5:00 P.M.
KENTUCKY Louisville	Sheraton Hotel Plantation Room	Friendship Hour	3:45-5:00 P.M.
MISSISSIPPI Jackson	Heidelberg Hotel Rose Room	Breakfast	7:30 A.M.
NORTH CAROLINA Raleigh	Sir Walter Hotel Hayes Barton Room	Breakfast	7:30 A.M.
SOUTH CAROLINA Columbia	Wade Hampton Hotel	Breakfast	7:30 A.M.
TENNESSEE Nashville	Hermitage Hotel Ball Room	Breakfast	7:30 A.M.
A.A.C.T.E. CHICAGO	LUNCHEON, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 15, 12:15—CONRAD-HILTON HOTEL, BEL AIR ROOM		
A.A.S.A. ATLANTIC CITY	LUNCHEON, MONDAY, FEBRUARY 19, 12:15—AMBASSADOR HOTEL, SURF ROOM		
A.S.C.D. LAS VEGAS	BREAKFAST, TUESDAY, MARCH 6, 7:30 A.M.—STARDUST HOTEL, INTERNATIONAL ROOM		
A.C.E.I. INDIANAPOLIS	BREAKFAST, TUESDAY, APRIL 24, 7:00 A.M.—SHERATON LINCOLN HOTEL, PARLOR "A"		

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In short, this book explains how the present social studies curriculum developed, suggests the objectives toward which the curriculum should now move, and provides expert interpretive analyses to help the teacher translate curriculum theory into concepts and viewpoints to be reflected in day-to-day classroom teaching.

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Editorial—

Behold, I Show You A Mystery

The human world teems with mysteries, and heaven defend us against the time when they will all have been solved. Without them the human mind would shrivel. They baffle us but they pull us ahead—those mysteries of birth and life and death; of learning and remembering and understanding; those subtle and mysterious responses of the senses; mysteries of the sun and moon and stars, and how and where and why they are; the mystery of the world we live in and those strange silent worlds clustered about it, mysteries of faith and friendship, the mystery of those questions, at once elementary and profound, that children ask. Bewildered? Of course!

The ultimately unknowable never baffles man. He never becomes aware of it. In any mystery the solution will be revealed. Sometimes that chapter comes late, but it comes, and another mystery will take the place of the one revealed. Else learning would die. Knowing cannot live on what it already has. The price of survival is the solving of the mysteries. Someday the mystery of cancer will yield to man's probing. The awareness of a mystery is the guarantee of its impermanency. The recognition of a problem finds its ultimate sequence in the answer. The diagnosis of disease is the forecast of its inevitable cure. Once weakness is discovered strength in the end will surely destroy it.

The mysteries become then the very stuff out of which human freedom emerges. The teacher who gives honest thought to the mysteries moves mankind another peg on its way to emancipation.

Origin and Development of the University

MARTHELLEN R. VAN SCOYOC
Bowling Green, Ohio

The fundamental organization and the tradition of the university arose out of obscure beginnings which took form during the twelfth century. At first there were no buildings or endowments, or extra curricula activities. They were merely a spontaneous combination of masters and students.

The term university was derived from the Latin word “universitas” and referred to any community or association of people. Students did not go to a university but rather to a “studia” or “studium generale” which implied a center of instruction. A “studia” had three characteristics:

1. That the school attracted or at least invited students from all parts, not merely those of a particular country or district.
2. That it was a place of higher education; that is to say, that one at least of the faculties—theology, law, medicine—was taught there.
3. That such subjects were taught by a considerable number—at least by a plurality—of masters.¹

There were at the beginning of the thirteenth century three studia to which the term was pre-eminently applied and which enjoyed a unique and transcendent prestige; they were Paris for theology and arts, Bologna for law, and Salerno for medicine.”² Later when schools in other cities wished to be placed on a par with Paris or Bologna they applied for a papal Bull or imperial decree to create a “studia generalia.” Without a license from the pope, emperor or a king no “studium generale” possessed the right to confer degrees. A degree, at first, meant a license to teach and nothing more. A few schools became

¹ Hastings Rashdall, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, (Oxford, 1895) Revised edition, F. M. Powicke and A. B. Emdeu, (Ed) London, Oxford Press, 1936, I, 7.

² *Ibid.*, 8.

known for their excellence of teaching and achieved more than local importance.

EARLY HISTORY

The Greeks and the Romans had no universities as we know them today but they did have some great teachers. Much of the instruction was in philosophy, rhetoric and law but it was not formally organized. Great teachers such as Socrates or Aristotle gave no certificates. However, the writing of classic antiquity were of the greatest importance in the revival of learning which began in the time of Charlemagne (768-814) and reached its height with the establishment of the universities at Bologna and Paris.³

The barbarian invasions destroyed the schools of the Roman Empire and the period immediately following was the darkest in the intellectual history of Europe. This gave rise to the monastic and Cathedral schools which served the needs of the church. "Benedictine monasticism created almost the only homes of learning and education, and constituted by far the most powerful civilizing agency in Europe until it was superseded as an educational instrument by the growth of the universities."⁴

The eleventh century was the turning point from the Dark Ages into one of the most progressive periods of all times. Religious terror was replaced by an active religious enthusiasm which produced scholars such as Pope Sylvester II known as Gerbert, Abelard, Peter Lombard and others who changed the picture of the entire intellectual world. Furthermore, the Crusades brought different parts of Europe in contact with one another and the East. A passion for inquiry began to take hold and the schools of Christendom were soon thronged by students from all of Europe.

Theological teachings were traditional but a certain amount of secular knowledge was considered necessary for the understanding of sacred writings. Secular knowledge was known as the "Seven Arts" which was divided into two parts, Trivium and Quadrivium. The Trivium consisted of grammar, rhetoric and dialectic, the dialectic being the main

³ *The Encyclopedia Britannica*, Vol. XXVII (11th Ed.), Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc., New York: 1911, 749.

⁴ Rashdall, *op. cit.*, 27-28.

secular teaching during the Dark Ages and became of the utmost importance in teaching during the formative years of the university. The Quadrivium consisted of music, arithmetic, geometry and astronomy. Arithmetic and astronomy were taught because of their importance in finding Easter.⁵

During the twelfth century there was a great influx of knowledge into western Europe through Italy and Sicily but chiefly through the Arab scholars of Spain. Europe now had books of plane and solid geometry written in Arabic notation and these have been used in schools and colleges ever since. Law and medicine also came into possession of ancient learning. By the middle of the century scores of men were engaged in translating works from both Greek and Arabic and within another hundred years all important and many lesser works were available for western use.⁶

The most famous scholar of the early twelfth century was Peter Abelard, born in 1079, the son of a feudal noble. Early in life he became enamored with learning and gave his heritage to a younger brother and joined the horde of students going to the cathedral schools in France and eventually to Paris. Abelard's most important contribution lies in the challenge he gave to the mental habits of his day. The scholastic movement under Abelard reached a point where it might be called a university movement but it was at least another generation before the university took form. However, Abelard did inaugurate the intellectual movement out of which universities sprang.⁷

EARLY UNIVERSITIES

Although Salerno never became a true university it is worthy of mention as it was, according to Mullinger, the "first university" in Europe being known as a medical school as early as the ninth century and it became famous throughout Europe.⁸ Rashdall completely disagrees with Mullinger, both well known authorities, as to the origin of the school at Salerno but concludes:⁹

⁵ *Ibid.*, 34-35.

⁶ Carl Stephenson, *Medieval History*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1935, 415.

⁷ Rashdall, *op. cit.*, 89-92.

⁸ *The Encyclopedia Britannica*, *op. cit.*, 749.

⁹ Rashdall, *op. cit.*, 76.

In all events, the unique fame of Salerno as a school of medicine was fully established long before the dialectical movement centered in Paris or the legal in Bologna.

The name of Irnerius is associated with a period in the history of medieval law and education, centered at Bologna, that must not be overlooked. The irnerian period marks the beginning of the systematic study of the whole "Corpus Inris Civilis" as a regular part of a legal education and this revival of legal science separated the study of law from rhetoric and the liberal arts.¹⁰

The intellectual movement in northern Italy had its spiritual side as well as the civil. There was a struggle between the Empire and the Papacy, a battle of ideas; however, events were happening that would help to solve this dispute.¹¹ There was a growing commerce which demanded a more definite application of the principles embodied in the codes handed down by Theodosius and Justinian. The *Decretum* of Gratian which was a systematic study of the Justinian Code appeared in 1151, and it inspired a monk to make a code of church law which was as complete and as scientific as the code for the State, thus infusing Roman law into the discipline of the church.¹² The *Decretum* met with such success by the twelfth and thirteenth centuries that it became necessary to study it outside of the monastery and Bologna became recognized as the chief school of both civil and cannon law.¹³

UNIVERSITY OF PARIS

It has been already mentioned that Peter Abelard came to Paris and became a master who attracted "hordes of students whose presence involved that multiplication of masters by whom the university was ultimately formed."¹⁴ He was a great teacher of the dialectic and applied it to theological dogma when he wrote his famous treatise, *Sic et Non*. Later a student of Abelard's, Peter the Lombard, Bishop of Paris (1159-1164), wrote *The Sentences* which became the most important textbook in the theological faculties of medieval universities.¹⁵

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 120-124.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, 98.

¹² *Ibid.*, 133-134.

¹³ *Encyclopedia Britannica*, *op. cit.*, 750.

¹⁴ Rashdall, *op. cit.*, 278.

¹⁵ S. J. Curtis and M. E. A. Boulwood, *A Short History of Education Ideas*, University Tutorial Press, Ltd., London, 1953, 102.

Lombard's work was the inspiration for numerous books of sentences, the most famous being the *Summa Theologiae* by Saint Thomas Aquinas (c. 1225-1274). With the great intellectual advance which took place from the time of Abelard to Aquinas it is not surprising to find the establishment of the University of Paris in this period.

When the cathedral school at Paris became a university is not known but it has chosen 1200, the year when it received its first royal charter.¹⁶ The University of Paris had its first written statutes by 1208 and received recognition as a corporate body about 1211 when it was empowered to send a representative to the papal court. When fully developed, probably by the end of the thirteenth century, it was divided into four faculties: the superior including theology, canon law and medicine; the inferior included art which was divided into four nations according to the location from which the student came. Each faculty had a dean, each nation was headed by a proctor and a rector was the head of the whole university. University matters were decided by a majority of the faculty and only those teaching had a right to vote. By the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries this democratic constitution was superceded by a small oligarchy of officials.¹⁷ In our American universities both these patterns are found today depending upon the university itself.

In order to understand the medieval university it is important to consider the student. The Paris statutes required the beginning bachelor to be fourteen (some were younger), bachelordom being merely an apprenticeship for mastership. The full course in the arts lasted seven years, twenty being the minimum age for the mastership. Many students were, of course, older. Unlike today, the medieval freshman enjoyed unfettered liberty. He was free to choose the master under whom he would study and to choose the hall to which he would attach himself. It was not necessary or even customary, regardless of how young, to live under the supervision of a master. This freedom lasted until the fifteenth century when both Paris and Oxford took steps to compel all students to reside either in a college or a hall

¹⁶ Charles H. Haskins. *The Rise of the Universities*, Ithaca, New York, Great Seal Books, 1923, 15.

¹⁷ *Encyclopedia Britannica*, *op. cit.*, 752.

(hospicium) presided over by a master.¹⁸ Even the most casual observer should realize that the American system of dormitories supervised by counselors and regulated by rules had its beginnings in the Universities of Paris and Oxford. This was also the beginning of the system of colleges which has lasted to the present time.

There were two classes of students for which residence in a house presided over by a master became accepted practice: the rich who lived in their own houses with a private tutor and the poor who could not afford the expense of the hospicium and lodged in some miserable garret. The college was at first simply an endowed boarding house and at Paris the endowed hall had a master at its head and he was supposed to give instruction somewhat less than that of the public school. Later it became the custom for the younger members to be assigned tutors, the more advanced undergraduate sharing in the instruction. Indirectly the colleges contributed to the securing of competent teachers who could not have otherwise afforded to go on to the studia of the higher Faculties.

Undoubtedly the most famous college at the University of Paris was the Sorbonne. It was founded by Robert de Sorbon, about 1257, for poor scholars who desired to enter into the long study for a Doctorate in Theology. Originally it was a college of theologians but by the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, Sorbonne became the popular name for the theological faculty of Paris.¹⁹ Today it is only the building that houses the Faculty of Arts and Sciences but many Americans make the mistake of thinking of it as the University of Paris.

With the rapid spread of education in the twelfth century there was an increasing number of masters who were anxious for permission to teach scholars who could pay for the services. It became customary for the chancellor to grant permission to masters to open schools of their own near the church, however, in 1138 the practice of selling permission was forbidden. By 1179 the presiding masters of the church school were required to grant a license (*licentia docendi*) to every qualified applicant and without a fee. Once the right to the license was established, teachers began to increase and soon pro-

¹⁸ Hasting Rashdall, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, Vol. III, (Rev. Ed.) Oxford University Press, London, 1936, 352-357.

¹⁹ Rashdall, Vol. I, *op. cit.*, 507-509.

fessional customs and unwritten laws came into being. The earliest academic degree was "licentia docendi" meaning the license to teach. The words master and doctor were originally synonymous; a Master of Arts was one qualified to teach the liberal arts and a Doctor of Laws was certified to teach law. An admission to the degree was the chancellor's permission to "incept" which implied the master's formal entrance and beginning as a licensed teacher and recognition by others in the profession.²⁰ So the tradition is carried on and the receiving of the Doctorate is truly the license to teach in our universities today.

The University of Paris became the model for the great universities that were to follow. Many other universities sprang up in France during the medieval period but the University of Paris remains among the great universities of the world.

ENGLISH UNIVERSITIES

The rise of the University of Oxford presents a sharp contrast to that of the University of Paris. Oxford had considerable scholastic reputation which attracted many students about 1167, however, there is no evidence of a studium general having been in Oxford before 1167 or 1168.²¹ "One thing may be taken as absolutely certain—that the schools in connection with which the university grew up were never at any time dependent upon any capitular or monastic body at Oxford."²² It is the hypothesis of the authorities that Oxford originated in an academic migration and its original masters and students must have come from Paris. This was a result of a quarrel between Thomas Becket and Henry II which resulted in a series of ordinances, circa 1167, against the partisans of Becket by Henry which stated that "no clerk shall cross from the continent to England or from England to the continent without leave of the King or his Justiciar in England."²³ All clerks were summoned to return to England within three months. Undoubtedly a large body of masters and scholars returned to England in obedience to the royal command.²⁴ Where did these scholars go? At least a part of them were sure to congregate

²⁰ *Ibid.*, 280-285.

²¹ Rashdall, Vol. III, *op. cit.*, 15-19.

²² *Ibid.*, 9-10.

²³ *Ibid.*, 13.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, 12-14.

under their old masters and transfer to England their old studies and their old organization. At no place is there a record of such a congregation except at Oxford.²⁵

At Oxford in 1209 a scholar killed a woman which became an event of considerable magnitude. It led to a violent "town and gown" riot but this was not unusual at medieval universities. However, this was a period of a quarrel between King John and the clergy and as a result of the above incident, two or three students were hanged with the consent of the King.²⁶ It is said that at that time 3,000 students left Oxford and went elsewhere. Rashdall states that the studium generale at Cambridge owes its existence to this exodus from Oxford.²⁷ Monroe states that "the town remained almost destitute of scholars until 1213, when John's submission to the Pope compelled the townspeople to humble themselves before the ecclesiastical authorities."²⁸

Among the edits was an ordinance which stated, "the town was forever to pay an annual sum of fifty-two shillings to be distributed among poor scholars twice yearly."²⁹ This money was applied to the foundation of an institution introduced for the benefit of scholars. The money was placed in a chest and when a student wished to borrow he was required to deposit some article worth more than the loan but if the loan was not returned within a year the pledge was sold at public auction. In the middle ages there were twenty of these chests established at Oxford.³⁰ This is the first record of student loan funds set up especially for the benefit of scholars.

It is doubtful that a chancellor existed at Oxford before 1214 as the Bishop failed to appoint one. The office was an imitation of the Paris chancellorship but the absence of a cathedral placed him in a very different relationship with the university. "At Paris the Chancellor was a member of a hostile corporation; his rule was violently resisted by the scholars; their guild or university grew into corporate existence very largely as a means of emancipation from his authority."³¹

²⁵ *Ibid.*, 23.

²⁶ Paul Monroe, *A cyclopedia of Education*, Vol. III, Macmillan Co., New York, 1914, 578.

²⁷ Rashdall, Vol. III *op. cit.*, 34.

²⁸ Monroe, *op. cit.*

²⁹ Rashdall, Vol. III, *op. cit.*, 35.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, 35-36.

³¹ Paul Monroe, *A cyclopedia of Education*, Vol. IV, Macmillan Co., New York, 1914, 579.

At Oxford the chancellor owed his existence to the university, the scholars had no reason for viewing him with jealousy or rebellion as he was chosen from the ranks of the masters. Under these circumstances he became the recognized head of the university.

During the thirteenth century the intercourse between Paris and Oxford was so close that every fresh development of corporate activity on the part of the master of Paris was more or less faithfully initiated or reproduced at Oxford, though the process of development was modified at every step by the different position of the chancellor.³²

The University of Oxford as a corporation had little influence in the political and ecclesiastical history of England but its scholastic fame was second only to Paris. It was the center of speculative thought. The three most famous teachers at Oxford in the thirteenth century were Edmund Rich, Robert Grosseteste and Roger Bacon. The writings of Bacon are still of great importance. Nor should John Wycliff be overlooked in the intellectual movement at Oxford in the fourteenth century. At Oxford these men began a movement which lead to a greater intellectual freedom.³³

It was previously mentioned that the University of Cambridge probably came into existence at the time of the Oxford incident of 1209, although there were undoubtedly grammar schools in Cambridge before that time. The students returned to Oxford in 1214 and it was not until 1229 that Cambridge was heard of as a studium when Henry III promised asylum in certain English towns to dispersed Paris scholars. Cambridge was probably one of the towns.³⁴

The history of privileges at Cambridge follows very closely that which developed at Oxford, however, it developed at a much slower rate. At both Cambridge and Oxford the earliest patterns of collegiate life were supplied by the Mendicants. Peterhouse was the first secular college at Cambridge and was founded in imitation of the statutes of the great Merton College at Oxford.³⁵ These illustrations show the relative position of Cambridge to Oxford and explain why "up to the end of the fourteenth century—that is to say up to the downfall of

³² Rashdall, Vol. III, *op. cit.*, 49.

³³ *Ibid.*, 236-248, 269-271.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, 276-278.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, 279-280, 293-298.

Scholasticism—Cambridge was a third-rate university.”⁸⁶

There was a rapid increase in the number of colleges at Cambridge toward the middle of the fourteenth century which shows the growth made at that time. This was a period when the scholastic movement of Wyclif was ingrained in Oxford and may have been one of the reasons why Cambridge was selected for royal patronage. “It was thought that in Cambridge a new school of the Church might be raised up to rival or supplant that ‘second School of the Church’ which had so grievously fallen from her first estate.”⁸⁷ This state of affairs probably had its influence and Henry VI located King’s College at Cambridge rather than at Oxford in 1441. Cambridge for the first time was nearly on the level of Oxford.

It is interesting to note the difference in events that preceded the rise of Oxford and Cambridge with that of the University of Paris. The University of Paris was established as the outcome of a revival of learning. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge grew, directly or indirectly, out of the political and religious quarrels of the day which resulted in great migrations of students. Nevertheless Paris, Oxford and Cambridge after many centuries have remained among the great universities of the world and have contributed much to our cultural heritage.

GERMAN UNIVERSITIES

Germany had no universities until the middle of the fourteenth century. When the earliest universities arose, Germany was too far behind culturally, and political conditions did not favor the establishment of a university. Germany, for nearly two centuries, was unaffected by the university movement except as its students went to foreign lands to study. The students were probably young nobles and the wellborn.⁸⁸

Charles IV, King of the Romans and King of Bohemia was a German scholar who had lived in France and had been influenced by French ideas. By his efforts a Papal Bull of foundation was issued which was followed by an Imperial charter in 1347 and the University of Prague

⁸⁶ *Ibid.*, 284.

⁸⁷ *Ibid.*, 316.

⁸⁸ Hastings Rashdall, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, Vol. II, (Rev. Ed.) Oxford University Press, London, 1936, 213-216.

came into being. Because of Charles' influence, Paris became the model for this first and subsequent German universities. The new university was a success from the start and brought education within reach of the sons of tradesmen and artisans.

Martin Luther could hardly have enjoyed a university education if he had to go to Paris for it; and without a university education for Luther, and such as Luther, the German Reformation could not have been.³⁹

The universities established at Prague, Vienna, Heidelberg, Cologne, Erfurt, Leipzig and Rostoch between 1347 and 1419 were, in part, a natural consequence of the new intellectual movement, the Renaissance. A need for these universities was found by territorial princes to be a means of strengthening their rule, to confine the clerical and intellectual life within their own boundaries.

An event in the history of Germany is worthy of note as it played an important part in the subsequent development of our own universities. Prussia, as a result of the Napoleonic conquest, began to gain intellectual power which was to replace what had been lost materially. The University of Berlin, established in 1810, was founded on the policy of a greater academic freedom. Pure idealism was to be the dominant principle in the search for truth. The University of Berlin was a free intellectual community with professors as masters and students as assistants and both were occupied with the task of solving the same problem. This principle soon found its way into all German universities and this laid the foundation for Germany's position in international culture.⁴⁰

The German university system gave intellectual leadership in the nineteenth century and evolved instructional techniques which reflected its interest in pushing back the frontiers of knowledge. It developed learned seminars and scientific laboratories in which the master and his students investigated the problems in their respective fields. By the middle of the century there was a stream of American students to Germany. The German-educated scholar brought back to America the key which helped to establish the ideal of productive research

³⁹ *Ibid.*, 216.

⁴⁰ Monroe, Vol. III, *op. cit.*, 94.

which became the guiding light of American higher education.⁴¹

CONCLUSION

The American university has developed a system which is unique in itself, however, it is dependent upon the universities of the past for its traditions. The American university is a hybrid, the undergraduate structure took its form from the English college system, while the graduate school of arts and sciences has taken its pattern from the Faculties of the German university. Although the English and the German universities developed somewhat different patterns of education, both were modeled originally from the mother University of Paris. The intellectual revival of the eleventh and twelfth centuries at Paris was truly the beginning of the university system which is now found throughout the world and on which cradles the hope of generations to come.

⁴¹ John S. Brubacker and Willis Rudy, *Higher Education in Transition*, Harpers and Brothers, New York, 1958, 184.

Image Without Illusion—Emerson's View of the Scholar

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I

When subjected to fair appraisal, there can be no doubt that Ralph Waldo Emerson's rich contribution to American intellectual history has done much to help us achieve maturity. Among the many subjects to which he brought a clear and undeceived mind was that of the scholar—his characteristics and his functions. Depicting the attributes and duties of the scholar with incisive simplicity, Emerson puts many of us who teach to shame for our failure to recognize and to challenge the banalism and the trivialism of the age.

With a forthrightness that distresses the fainthearted, Emerson enumerates the characteristics of the genuine scholar. And they are several. In the first instance the scholar must be willing to work. He who does not serve an apprenticeship, wherein he learns the secrets of labor, can never become a master. All intellectual endeavor is demanding and the youthful, aspiring scholar is well advised to understand that the maintenance of a family involves a drain upon strength so great as to disqualify one for serious intellectual accomplishment (MR, I, 230). Scholarship must, therefore, come before family; sweat must come before comfort and the luxuries of life; toil is the key to success and he who would achieve it must "not refuse to bear the yoke in his youth . . ." (LE, I, 175). The scholar must understand that "labor, iron labor, is for him" (G, VIII, 295).

Of equal importance, the scholar must be heroic. He must understand that heroism can take many forms, and although it is difficult to achieve, it is no less available to the scholar in the quiet of a study than to the sailor on the high seas. There is heroism in the life of the scholar when he singles out his task, sticks to it, and thinks his own high thoughts (G, VIII, 288). "Heroism," first published with the

Essays in 1841, restates the self-reliance thesis in a different framework but frequently in more poetic language. Toward the end of the essay, Emerson points the way once again for those, including scholars, who would find peace yet who would be heroic. Postulated Emerson, "I see not any road of perfect peace which a man can walk, but after the counsel of his own bosom. Let him quit too much association, let him go home much, and establish himself in those courses he approves" (I, 247).

Further, the scholar must be indifferent to the lure of popularity, to the seductive appeal of material possessions. He must give up for good and all the idea that what the mass of men think should influence him. The mass of men are incapable of guessing what a great man is up to. Naively to yield to public pressure, uncritically to take their values, is the sure road to mediocrity (A, X, 62-3). At the full tide of fame Emerson delivered an address, "The Scholar" (not to be confused with his famous Phi Beta Kappa oration, "The American Scholar," delivered nine years before), at the University of Virginia. Herein he warned us of what the scholar must bear. The training of the scholar should emphasize patience—necessarily so—for financial neglect, psychological isolation, exhaustion, frustration, and overt insult frequently await the man who devotes his life disinterestedly to truth and to letters. The scholar must, therefore, learn to "ride at anchor and vanquish every enemy whom his small arms cannot reach, by the grand resistance of submission, of ceasing to do" (X, 271-2). In youthful America, to find shades of thought anticipating Gandhi's doctrine of non-resistance, the suspension of activity, as well as an anticipation of Veblen's more acidulously enunciated theory of the "conscientious withdrawal of support," is refreshing.

In addition, the scholar must cherish solitude. He must not forever be hankering after the crowd, fearful of being alone; rather he must love long moments of quiet isolation wherein his embryonic thoughts have time to flower and to crystallize. That the scholar must work alone is powerfully stated in one of Emerson's finest essays. The scholar, he observed, ". . . must be a solitary, laborious, modest, and charitable soul. He must embrace solitude as a bride. He must have his glees and his glooms alone. His own estimate must be measure

enough, his own praise reward enough for him. And why must the student be solitary and silent? That he may become acquainted with his thought. If he pines in a lonely place, hankering for the crowd, for display, he is not in the lonely place; his heart is in the market; he does not see; he does not hear; he does not think. But go cherish your soul; expel companions; set your habits to a life of solitude; then will the faculties rise fair and full within. . .” (LE, 168). The historical record is abundant testimony that great men—Plato, Archimedes, Newton, and Milton to cite a few—live apart from the crowd but on occasion come into it with a message that enriches the vapid fatuity of the existence of the masses and encourages the disconsolate. Not only must the scholar have solitude, but also the wise teacher will see to it that his pupils learn to be alone and develop habits of living and thinking conducive to the solitary, reflective life. Writing with an unnatural sarcasm, but with typical frankness, Emerson suggests that if the university serves no other useful function at least it provides the student with a room and a fire separate from the incessant and disruptive chaos of collegiate life (C, VI, 150).

Finally, the scholar must be both brave and free. Paradoxically, Emerson saw freedom as both a condition and a consequence of scholarship. One year to the day after his Phi Beta Kappa address, he expressed this latter sentiment in his *Journals*. Recorded the thirty-five-year-old Emerson, “I am convinced that if a man will be a true scholar he shall have perfect freedom” (5, 31). The former sentiment is expressed when he says, “it is the primary duty of the man of letters to secure his independence” (ML, 240). The man who would be a scholar must be not only free but also brave. He must be brave, for fear is but the product of ignorance. No limitation should be admitted by the scholar upon his thought and speech save that which he imposes upon himself. If a limitation is not the natural product of a scholar’s constitution, then it should be resisted. The scholar’s class is not a protected one, and the scholar himself must not think that by avoiding issues and controversy or by placing his head in the sand he can survive. Behavior so conceived can lead to nothing but an illusory, temporary peace (AS, 104). And the courage to live comes from being a spiritual person. The scholar who has only literary weapons

at his disposal is vulnerable. "Memory, practical talent, good manners, temper, lion-courage are all good things." But they must be accounted superficial if the scholar is not spiritual (J, 7, 76-7).

II

Speaking at Dartmouth College in 1838, Emerson identified the fortunate man, the man honored by the Muses, as the scholar. For Emerson, the scholar was the favorite of both heaven and earth, happy above all men, and the most excellent representative of his country (LE, 151). How can we further delineate the scholar? He is a man engaged in thinking; he is not one who reflects the thought of others, but one who does his own basic thinking (AS, I, 85-6). Necessarily reflection is a more basic obligation than action, but no true scholar can isolate himself from the community or from his fellow men. For as Emerson drives home the point, the scholar must be a man of action even though action is subordinate to thought (95).

What function is this honored man, the scholar, to perform? Addressing the Phi Beta Kappa society of Harvard in 1837, he contended the scholar must cheer his fellow man, he must raise his moral tone, he must be a guide to mankind by showing what is fact in the sea of appearance. The same year he noted in his *Journal* (4, 281) essentially the same ideas. Wrote Emerson of the scholar's function: "He has an office to perform in Society. What is it? To arouse the intellect; to keep it erect and sound; to keep admiration in the hearts of people; to keep the eye open upon its spiritual aims. How shall he render this service? By being a soul among those things with which he deals." By such action education fulfills one of its principal aims—making the individual prevail over the vicissitudes of circumstance (J, 5, 441).

Jesus, affirms Emerson, may be taken as an excellent and true teacher, for he does what every real teacher must necessarily do—he leads us to ourselves, he helps us see the divinity of the self. Further, the true teacher resists the temptation, open to men who may strategically influence the lives of others, to place himself between the student and the student's self-awareness (C, X, 99). The true teacher will not be one to deny God, but rather will be one whose speech and behavior attests the fact that God exists as a manifest power in the

universe. He will show us that God is a reality, not a past dream; he will show us that God speaks now, that he is not one who has spoken never to speak again (DSA, I, 142). A caution is in order. The mature Emerson never considered God in theistic terms. Numerous references can be cited to demonstrate this point. Perhaps the most incisive is from his *Journals*, written after the death of his first wife, Ellen Louisa Tucker, and during a time when he was reflecting particularly upon the meaning of tragedy in human existence. Observed Emerson, “. . . I cannot find, when I explore my own consciousness, any truth in saying that God is a person, but the reverse. I feel that there is some profanity in saying, He is personal. To represent him as an individual is to shut him out of my consciousness” (4, 405).

True teachers are our intimate guides, who also serve to measure our progress. As each of us passes from one lower level of development to the next higher level, his teachers come more clearly into perspective, we are then ready to shed them for newer and richer minds. Such are the uses of poets, priests, and philosophers; such the “Uses of Great Men” generally (IV, 37). Self-reliance characterizes not only the great man but also the great teacher. Emerson’s recurring thesis that the great do not imitate necessarily applies to the teacher. The great teacher will not be led astray by imitation but will keep to the facts. He carries his students from particulars to universals, from the immediate to the long range. He introduces them to facts but always with the intention of minimizing himself so that the fact may reveal richer and broader experience. No truly great teacher ever lets himself personally become a burden to the students he instructs (TML, XII, 182). The real teacher is one of high caliber and superior mentality, who makes himself as the Greeks understood, expendable. He is one who can communicate himself not by words but by being and by doing. (SL, 144). So oriented, the teacher will bring humility to his task and will then not overrate what he can do. He will not assume that he alone is capable of transmitting knowledge. He will realize that his principal function is that of provoking his students to reflective self-dependence. Emerson develops this idea in one of his most incisive yet typically Emersonian observations, “Meantime, whilst the doors of the temple stand open, night and day, before every man, and

the oracles of this truth cease never; it is guarded by one stern condition; this, namely; it is an intuition. It cannot be received at second hand. Truly speaking, it is not instruction but provocation, that I can receive from another soul" (DSA, I, 126). Here is the very heart of Emerson's educational thought. The teacher must provoke the student into intellectual independence, he must provoke the student so that reliance upon intuition becomes habitual and confidence in it is unshaken. Instruction may, therefore, be nothing more than a matter of mechanics—*tuition*; real education is founded upon *intuition*.

The function of education and scholarship in general is simply the function of the particular scholar writ large. Amongst the myriad possibilities, the true teacher makes men see their real worth and makes them scorn themselves for immoral action (Su, VII, 291). For much too long utilitarianism has dominated education. Education exists not only to make practitioners of the arts and the sciences but also to make good men. Writing in clear terms, but in a spirit alien to the modern pragmatic temper, Emerson eloquently states the purpose of formal learning in his delightfully heretical essay, "Education": "The great object of Education should be commensurate with the object of life. It should be a moral one; to teach self-trust: to inspire the youthful man with an interest in himself; with a curiosity touching his own nature; to acquaint him with the resources of his mind, and to teach him that there is all his strength, and to inflame with a piety towards the Grand Mind in which he lives. Thus would education conspire with the Devine Providence" (X, 134). Broadly conceived, the office of education is the cultivation of the individual will (Co, VII, 259). Emerson vividly understood the Greek idea that culture educates long before contemporary anthropologists sought to pre-empt the "culture concept." He realized that individuals rightly employing their influence will enhance sensibilities to the point that moral sentiment will inspire not only our principles but the law itself (P, III, 195-6). So educated, the individuals of one class will cease to envy the presumed benefits of those in another class (C, VI, 139), and each will see that education has the relentless purpose of habituating all to live with higher thoughts. Thus each will think of himself as a benefactor to the human race not a mere underling (FRA, XI, 389). That

the traditional elements should be taught and mastered, Emerson never doubted, but he saw that higher education particularly should not be restricted to the elements alone. More important, higher education should set the minds and hearts of youth on fire; it should emphasize thought and knowledge, not technique, gadgetry, or the mastery of apparatus (AS, I, 94-5).

This is strong medicine for a generation of educators nurtured on a less than rigorous diet. But Emerson is a wholesome influence, for in his criticism he shows us that illusions are a rebuke to integrity, and thereby returns the aspiring scholar to his true mission: the relentless pursuit and the courageous dissemination of truth.

An Experiment in Training Social Studies Teachers at North Texas State University, Denton*

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An experimental situation was initiated at North Texas State University in 1959-60 to improve the attitudes and teaching abilities of those students who were prospective social studies teachers. This was necessary for two reasons, the department of social studies did not offer a course in the methods of teaching and there seemed to be an attitude of defeatism among the social studies students. The first year's program, run on an informal basis, seemed to be effective, but there was a desire to obtain more factual information about the results of this experiment. The teaching situation also changed. The professor in charge of this experiment moved to another college.

The second year, 1960-61, was carefully set up for a controlled experiment. First, the teaching personnel were carefully chosen. The full-time staff member chosen to head this experiment had a background of a bachelor of arts degree in anthropology and an additional two years of graduate work in anthropology, a master of arts degree in educational administration, and a doctor of philosophy degree with a major in social foundations of education and a minor in sociology. In addition, he had a teaching background in public schools, in adult education, as a college professor, and as head of the education department in a small college. The doctoral student who was chosen as the second member of the team had a background of a bachelor of science in education degree with a major in social science, a master of arts degree in education and economics, and twenty-eight years of teaching experience as classroom teacher, principal, superintendent, college professor, dean, and educational researcher.

*This research was supported by a grant from the Faculty Research Council, North Texas State University, Denton, Texas.

Social studies students came from two sources—those who were students of the School of Arts and Sciences and were majoring in a social science, and those who were students of the School of Education, majoring in secondary education with a subject concentration in social studies. Both groups had expressed a desire to teach. All were seniors who would be graduated during the academic year of 1960-61.

These students signed up for three courses: adolescent psychology, curriculum development, and methods of teaching in high school. These courses lasted for nine weeks, half a semester. During the last half of the semester, student teaching in the public schools of the area was carried out by these students under the supervision of the same professors. The experimental situation was designed so that each of the students was required to take all three classes. Thus, the student population was identical in each of the classes.

Team teaching was part of the experiment. The three classes were fused. The classes met from 8:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m., with an hour break for lunch, on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays. Both professors were present at all times. The method of teaching used mainly was informal classroom discussion, with professors and students participating. This was interspersed with lectures, audio-visual presentation, student reports, library work, and other techniques. The senior member of the staff had the responsibility of planning the classroom work, but the objectives and day by day work were developed cooperatively using the capabilities of both staff members. Three textbooks were used as a basis, but the material was interwoven and fused so that the pupils could not distinguish where one left off and another began. These were, of course, supplemented by other library materials.

There was another responsibility—that of testing to determine the effectiveness of the experiment. The doctoral student, who was the second member of the teaching team, spent two months in intensive research during the summer session of 1959-60 to determine the proper tests to measure the outcomes desired, which were:

1. Understanding of the conditions affecting learning.
 - A. Adolescent, psychological, learning theory.
 - B. Secondary school curriculum and organization.

2. Understanding of the particular meanings of these conditions for the social studies teacher.
3. Acceptance of appropriate pattern of purpose regarding the social education of youth in public schools.
4. Understanding of the fields of social science, and awareness of basic values within and among these fields, in terms of the demands of social studies teaching.
5. Understanding of a variety of teaching techniques in the social studies.
6. Self-evaluation in terms of the demands of social studies teaching, and initiation of plans for individually adapted teaching methods.

The tests selected to measure these outcomes, in part, were:

1. Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests
2. Cummings World History Test
3. Dimond-Pflieder Problems of Democracy Test
4. Crary American History Test
5. Allport Study of Values
6. Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory

These tests were given at the beginning of the semester to determine where the individual student was. At the end of student teaching, a different form of each test (with the exception of the Heston and Allport tests where the same form was used) were given to measure the amount and direction of change.

The first year of the experiment has been accomplished, and the tests have been analysed, statistically, to see what has been accomplished. In addition, there has been opinion—unscientific perhaps—from the college coordinators and high school cooperating teachers. The opinion is that these students did change tremendously in their attitudes toward teaching, and that this was, collectively, one of the better groups of social studies student teachers turned out by North Texas State College.

For analysis of the tests, here are the results: There were two groups during the year. Each was given a pre-test and post-test to determine I.Q., knowledge of world history, American history, problems of democracy, and their attitude and values as indicated on the Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory and on the Allport Study of Values.

The mean I.Q. of the group was 114. The range of the four tests

given was from 95 to 135, or 40. The means on the pre-tests and post-tests did not show a significant difference—0.43 for the entire group. In other words, the testing situations were such that there was no gain in I.Q. during the semester because of rapport or test sophistication. This would indicate that the group, as a whole, was stable from the viewpoint of intelligence quotients.

Ninety-five per cent of the students taught some phase of American history, 34 per cent had a class, or classes, in world history, and 24 per cent had government or civics classes.

The mean of the pre-tests for the entire group on the Crary American History Test was the 85.92 percentile. The mean of the post-tests was the 90.08 percentile. This is an increase of 4.16 percentiles for the class in subject matter concerning American history.

The scores on the Cummings World History Test, however, showed a drop of 2.86 percentile ranks during the semester. The pre-tests showed a mean of 87.57, and the post-tests had a mean of 84.71.

On the Dimond-Pflieder Problems of Democracy Test, there was an increase from a pre-test mean of 86.92 to a post-test mean of 88.00—an increase of 1.08 percentile ranks during the semester.

It is our conclusion that the effort the student teachers made to plan and present materials for American history classes caused the increase in knowledge on the Crary test, while the absence of contact by the majority of student teachers with world history caused the decline in knowledge on the Cummings test. All history should be concerned with problems of democracy, and there was a slight improvement on the Dimond-Pflieder test.

The major emphasis given to the research this year was in self evaluation in terms of the demands of social studies teaching. The way a teacher perceives himself will, of course, influence how he plans for his courses, how he individually adapts teaching methods, how he accepts the appropriate pattern of purpose regarding the social education of youth in public schools, and understanding of the conditions affecting learning.

The Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory has six parts—analytical thinking, sociability, emotional stability, confidence, personal relations, and home satisfaction. The group of social studies student teachers

improved in each of these areas: 1.41 percentiles in analytical thinking, 4.76 percentiles in sociability, 15.54 percentiles in emotional stability, 15.05 percentiles on confidence, 8.68 percentiles on personal relations, and 10.95 percentiles on home satisfaction.

If for no other reason than the improvement in these areas, the experiment should be considered satisfactory.

The Allport Study of Values also has six sections—theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious. The test is so constructed that a rise in values in one area necessitates a lowering of values in another. The areas showing gain, for the group as a whole, were economic—1.06 points, political—4.69 points, and religious—3.94 points. The other three declined—theoretical 0.92 points, aesthetic 6.33 points, and social 3.56 points. This would indicate that the students became more interested in that which is useful (economic), in power (political), and in ethics or unity (religious). They became less interested, slightly, in truth (theoretical), in form and harmony (aesthetic), and in love of people (social).

Although this experiment was considered successful, it will be continued and expanded during the years to come. A great many values were obtained from the experiment by the students and by the professors. The primary value to the students was a conference in which the tests were used for diagnostic purposes. Each pupil became aware of deficiencies in academic areas and aware of the way he looked at himself and at the world. The values for the professors, of course, were that they have been helped to a better understanding of pupils and have obtained evidence, or indications, for better training of student teachers.

Personnel Pandemonium or Positive Prediction?

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If school personnel selection policies are to be effective and realistic, steps must be taken to include, as a standard part of the procedure, the idea that predicting success for a specific teacher is almost impossible. However, the administrator charged with the responsibility of selecting school personnel should realize that there are indicators for predicting the probable success of a large percentage of the teachers selected.

Anyone who has had experience with the schools of this nation is aware that in the teaching profession, as in other areas, square pegs have been forced into round holes and been left to plug those holes in any manner possible. There is a remote possibility that in the frontier days of this nation such happenstance selection and assignment of teachers could have had some degree of efficiency. However, in the present-day world such a waste of potential is inexcusable. It is essential that school personnel be selected on as scientific a basis as is possible.

The business leaders of the nation realized long ago that if their businesses were to flourish, a systematized personnel policy was going to have to be adopted. Even after personnel studies were made and personnel policies adopted, the businesses did not make correct choices 100 per cent of the time; however, the element of pure chance was eliminated, and the element of experimentation (calculated guessing, if you will) was substituted. In discussing the matter of placing a specific employee in a specific job, Pigors and Myers say:

Placement has an experimental element, but for routine workers it is a decisive step and should consist in matching what the supervisor has reason to think the new employee can do with what the job *demands* . . . , imposes . . . , and offers It is not easy to match all these factors for

the new worker who is still in many ways an unknown quantity. For this reason, the first placement usually carries with it the status of probationer.¹

In addition to fitting the right person into the right position, Pigors and Myers also discuss the matter of “overselling” the job to the prospective employee. They point out the dangers inherent in the practice of employers making unwarranted promises.

If they do, employees will inevitably become dissatisfied when experience shows the difference between recruitment talk and employment facts. And, in whatever form their dissatisfaction is expressed, it militates against organizational stability. Thus any method of high-pressure recruiting salesmanship defeats the long-run aim of the whole hiring process.²

So it is that business has discovered a method which improves the efficiency of the business. Whether the reader be cynical or idealistic and whether he look at the personnel policies adopted by business as shrewd business practices or pure altruism, the facts are that personnel policies in business which recognize the individuality of the worker have resulted in more efficient production.

In addition to matching the worker with the job and presenting the job realistically to the prospective employee, there is a third element which business has discovered and which has an even more direct application to education. Waite reports:

Improving the over-all quality of the personnel selected for employment makes it possible to minimize turnover, reduce training time and training failures, extend job tenure, and improve employee morale, all of which represent definite financial savings.³

Waite goes on to point out that:

It is relatively easy to identify, either visually or statistically, the very good or the very poor candidates; the far larger number whose qualifications place them between these two extremes present the major problem to the employment supervisor⁴

What, then, are the implications for the school personnel officer?

¹ Paul Pigors and Charles A. Myers, *Personnel Administration* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1951), p. 187.

² *Ibid.*, p. 175.

³ William W. Waite, *Personnel Administration* (New York: The Ronald Press, 1952), p. 167.

⁴ *Ibid.*

Chandler and Petty have said that “. . . personnel administration is the real core of successful school administration.”⁵ Moreover, it is possible to draw from the above statements that a thoughtful, well considered placement of a teacher into a teaching position can contribute toward an environment in which learning can take place.

A well-conceived selection program embodies sequential activities designed to procure the best possible teacher for each vacancy in the school system. Required qualifications are established for each position. A systematic and continuing search is made for desirable candidates. A plan is developed for the collection, analysis, and evaluation of necessary information about each candidate.⁶

It has been seen that both business and education have realized the necessity for applying some type of “scientific” yardstick to the prospective employee. It was implied in the initial paragraph that the school administrator must be willing to admit that his selection process is not infallible; at the same time, he is duty bound to make as accurate an appraisal of a candidate as is possible. As recently as 1955, writers in the field of personnel selection were willing to wring their hands over the fact that there was no *accurate* method for predicting teaching success. Typical of the statements is: “About the only tangible result of research on selection problems is a stimulation to further study and experimentation.”⁷ At the same time practitioners in the field were operating primarily on the basis of “feeling” that a candidate would be a success in the classroom.

There probably is no one on whom more objective data are available concerning abilities, aptitudes, and interests than the present-day college graduate. In the light of this, it is inexcusable for the school administrator charged with the responsibility of personnel selection to operate on the rather primitive level of “feeling” that a candidate will or will not succeed.

The idea that there are objective data is supported by Ryans. While this quotation is rather lengthy, the writer feels that the entire idea is worthy of presentation:

⁵ B. J. Chandler and Paul V. Petty, *Personnel Management in School Administration* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1955), p. vii.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 123.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 154.

Measured intellectual abilities, achievement in college course, general cultural and special subject matter knowledge, professional information, student teaching marks, emotional adjustment, attitudes favorable to students, generosity in appraisals of the behavior and motives of other persons, strong interest in reading and literary matters, interest in music and painting, participation in social and community affairs, early experiences in caring for children and teaching (such as reading to children, taking a class for the teacher), history of teaching in the family, size of school and size of community in which teaching, cultural level of community, and participation in avocational activities, all appear to be characteristics of the teacher which are likely to be positively correlated or associated with teacher effectiveness in the abstract.

Extensiveness of general and/or professional education, enrollment in particular professional courses, professional appearance, and grade or subject taught (with some exceptions) appear to bear very little relation to the abstracted criterion.

Age of the teacher and amount of teaching experience seem to manifest an over-all negative relationship with teaching effectiveness, although there is evidence of curvilinearity, increase in effectiveness being positively correlated with experience during the early years of teaching careers. Sex differences in teaching effectiveness do not appear to be pronounced among elementary teachers, although at the secondary level it appeared that women as a group may be more effective than men as a group on specified criterion dimensions.

For teachers of all levels considered together, there seems to be little difference in specified dimensions of teacher behavior between single and married teachers; within the elementary schools the evidence somewhat favors married teachers; at the secondary level unmarried teachers as a group appear to be superior with respective criterion measures which relate to systematic, responsible teacher classroom behavior.

Certain of the above-named characteristics, then, do seem to be associated with some dimensions of teacher behavior and teacher effectiveness, although the extent of obtained relationships frequently has not been high. It is important here to recall that relationships and differences which have been noted are in terms of averages for groups of teachers and any obtained relationship is limited by, and may be expected to vary with, conditions outlined above. The usefulness of research findings pertaining to the prediction of teacher effectiveness will be greatest when the results are considered in an actuarial context, rather than in attempting highly accurate prediction for given individuals, and when variations in relationship found among different classifications of teachers and with the use of

different approaches to the predictor-criterion relationship are taken into account.⁸

Thus it appears to be not only desirable but possible to predict with reasonable accuracy the probability of success. The only question remaining, then, is: Shall we have personnel pandemonium or positive prediction?

⁸ David G. Ryans, "Prediction of Teacher Effectiveness," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 3rd Edition (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960), pp. 1490-91.

I Like Words

I like fat, buttery words, such as ooze, turpitude, glutinous, toady. I like solemn, angular, creaky words, such as straitlaced, cantankerous, pecunious, valedictory. I like spurious, gold-plated, black-is-white words, such as gentlefolk, mortician, free-lancer, mistress. I like suave "V" words, such as Svengali, svelte, bravura, verve. I like crunchy, brittle, crackly words, such as splinter, grapple, jostle, crusty. I like sullen, crabbed, scowling words, such as skulk, glower, scabby, churl. I like Oh-Heavens, my-gracious, land's-sake words, such as tricky, tucker, genteel, horrid. I like pretty-pretty, flowered endimanche words, such as elegant, halcyon, elysium, artiste. I like wormy, squirmy, mealy words, such as crawl, blubber, squeal, drip. I like sniggly, chuckling words, such as cowlick, gurgle, bubble and burp.

I like the word job better than position or situation. I quit mine last October . . . a copy and contract job with a healthy New York agency. I left it to go to Europe where I spent ten luscious months wallowing in culture.

I have just come back . . . and I still like words. May I have a few with you? Robert Pirosh, 385 Madison Avenue, Room 610, New York, Eldorado 5-6024.

The Effective Teacher at the Doctoral Level in Education

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What were the major attributes of the professor who exerted the most positive influence on you in graduate school?¹

This question was submitted to all available persons who earned the Ph.D. at George Peabody College for Teachers during the period 1919-1950 and to all who were candidates for the degree during this period, but who, for a variety of reasons, failed to complete the requirements.

Replies were received from 325 of the 441 Ph.D.s and from 134 of the 267 candidates for an overall return of 65%. It should be noted that because of death the numbers listed above are less than the actual number of Peabody Ph.D. recipients or candidates who did not complete the requirements.

A total of 1,172 attributes were listed. Of these the majority, 883, were furnished by the Ph.D. group as compared with but 289 comments by the non-Ph.D. group.

When classified these, attributes fell into twenty-six categories. These are listed below in descending order of frequency of mention.

MAJOR ATTRIBUTES OF EFFECTIVE FACULTY MEMBERS

<i>Attribute</i>	<i>Number Commenting</i>	<i>Percent</i>
1. High Scholarship	150.....	12.9
2. Interested in welfare of students—knew his students	131.....	11.2
3. Thorough training in his field—interested in his subject	112.....	9.6
4. A great teacher	84.....	7.1

¹ William D. Hedges, *Doctoral Candidates at George Peabody College for Teachers From 1919 to 1950*, Peabody Contribution to Education: second series, No. 99, p. 219.

<i>Attribute</i>	<i>Number Commenting</i>	<i>Percent</i>
5. Friendly—kindly—warmhearted—genial	84	7.1
6. Understanding—patient—considerate— tolerant	64	5.5
7. Honest in dealing with students—intellectual honesty—fairness	57	4.9
8. Exacting—critical—constructive, but demanding	51	4.3
9. Willing to help students with their problems	47	4.0
10. Approachable—humane	40	3.4
11. Encouraged students to do their own thinking— stimulated thinking	35	3.0
12. An inquiring mind—a student still	33	2.8
13. Some firm convictions—a working philosophy— personal integrity	33	2.8
14. Common sense approach to problems—logical— methodical approach to problems—objective	32	2.7
15. High quality of work required	25	2.2
16. Broadly cultured—a gentleman	21	1.8
17. Evidence of careful preparation—thorough— conscientious in his work	19	1.6
18. A sense of moral qualities—high ideals	18	1.5
19. Respects opinions of students—respects students .	17	1.4
20. Sincerity	17	1.4
21. Vision—breadth of view—broadened my horizons in my field	15	1.3
22. Sense of humor	12	1.0
23. Scintillating personality—inspiring	12	1.0
24. Practical	9	0.8
25. Use of judicious commendation—positive approach	8	0.7
26. Miscellaneous	46	4.0
Total	1172	100.0%

It should be noted that attributes or characteristics directly or indirectly related to the professor-student relationship accounted for 41.2 percent of the 1172 listed. Interestingly enough, these particular comments did not have to do with teaching per se, but were almost entirely of a personal-social nature. They were, in descending order of frequency of mention: (1) interest in welfare of students—knew

his students, (2) friendly—kindly—warmhearted—genial, (3) understanding—patient—considerate—tolerant, (4) honest in dealing with students—intellectual honesty—fairness, (5) willingness to help students with their problems, (6) approachable—humane, (7) respects opinions of students—respects students and (8) judicious use of commendation—positive approach.

The second major cluster of characteristics centered around scholarship and accounted for over one-fourth (26.9 per cent) of the total. The factors listed were: (1) high scholarship, (2) thorough training in his field, (3) an inquiring mind—a student still, and (4) evidence of careful preparation—thorough—conscientious in his work.

The third and last large cluster of factors had to do with the quality of work required. Here, comprising 10.8 per cent of the total were: (1) exacting, critical, constructive, but demanding, (2) encouraged students to do their own thinking—stimulated thinking, (3) high quality of work required, and (4) vision—breadth of view—broadened horizons in my field.

When the comments of the two groups were tallied separately and compared it was noted that the first three categories in the table above were listed AND IN THE SAME ORDER by both groups. In other words, those students who failed in their aspirations to earn the Ph.D. also identified as most important the attributes of (1) scholarship, (2) interest in students and (3) thorough training and interest in his area of specialization.

The people replying to the above question were the “cream of the crop” so to speak of Peabody College graduates since the inception of their Ph.D. program to the middle of the 20th century.

They held and hold positions ranging from college presidencies, deanships, professorships of education, English, psychology, mathematics, public school administration, state departments of education to a large miscellany of positions in teaching at all levels in a great variety of fields.

They ranged in experience from six to over forty years in their respective fields.

They were working at the time of the study in 35 of the 48 states.

To the extent that their opinions concerning the attributes of the

most influential college teacher at the advanced graduate level in education are valid they would seem to support the following conclusion:

1. These people feel they influenced more in a positive way by the professor-student relationship in a personal-social sense than by either the scholastic stature of the teacher or his specific teaching competence. This is despite the fact that scholarship was listed as the most significant SINGLE factor.

It is conceivable of course that these personal-social factors were so effective because of a kind of halo effect, i.e. concern for and interest in a student by a scholar of stature and/or a skilled teacher were doubly effective.

Whether the dual factors of scholarship and personality warmth are concomitant but equally important, or whether there is a cause and effect relationship, the major point to be noted is that these former students considered their lives as having been strongly influenced by men of scholarship with the personality characteristics mentioned.

Somehow it doesn't always seem "academically respectable" to speak of attitude development at the graduate level. Perhaps those professors who over the years have taken the time and made the effort to know and be interested in their students outside the formal classroom situation are exerting greater influence in attitude development than even they realize.

Toward a New Education—Method or Madness?

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Something new lies ahead in American education. The particular direction changes will take, the severity of reform, the genuineness of alterations, all lie in the dim, unknown future. Whether for good or ill, change is before us; the method of reform will shape the wisdom, the permanency, the success of the new education.

Having become pawns of an ever-more-dominating technology, it would be strange, indeed, should we ignore the influence of science in adapting education to meet the new demands of the Space Age. On the basis of past experience, however, we could choose to ignore the scientific method and revert to those old reliable technics, by-guess-and-by-gosh, superstition, astrology, and all the mysticisms perfected through the ages. The odds are frightening that we may continue to be wiser in the development of a better-tasting and more nutritious dog food than in the refinement of our educational process.

There are systematic methods for improving our schools just as logical and trustworthy as the means for bettering Fido's diet; it is high time we used them. The exact means we decide on are relatively unimportant, but there are a few general steps appropriate for any orderly process.

Before action may be initiated to improve the product, be it canned horsemeat or the learning process, a thorough study of the present product must be made, weaknesses identified and strengths recognized. If we make these judgments on intuition or with voodoo technics, we as quickly abandon any possibility for a systematic reorganization of education. The pedagogical woods are crowded with self-anointed high priests chanting their magical prescriptions for schoolhouse ills.

But the social sciences and mathematics have made significant progress in observational and measurement technics which provide new

tools for a searching review of the status quo. In addition, there is only-too-eager aid of the pseudo-science of psychology so that "me-thinks" can be refined to a near-scientific fund of facts and figures. If data lack true scientific objectiveness they, nevertheless, become refined to the degree of near respectability, are more trustworthy than logic.

It is true that the social scientist too frequently abuses his research methods into uselessness. There is a dire need for constantly testing the sharpness of observation and statistical interpretation. Eager-beavers behind calculating machines need to be restrained in their evaluation of data, must critically reject items that go beyond the rough limits of available yardsticks. The test is not to support a pet thesis with statistics but to prevent excursions into misinterpretation or exaggeration. The researcher must police his own work to reduce the possibilities of conclusions being laughed into oblivion or that educator-clients be castigated for failures based on faulty research. He must be realistic in published inferences and recommendations.

Regardless of the difficulties—primarily in and about educational research, its observational methods and interpretation—the opportunity presents itself to follow in the footsteps of science and technology.

A scientist may look aghast at educational research and condemn it as an impossible perversion of the scientific method. Educators cannot, however, be deterred by such criticism but may well be bolstered by the memory that the sciences, too, each survived a similar infancy. Unless schoolhouse experimentation should become buried under its own ineptitude, the future can scarcely offer other than more-skillful research and constant refinement of the teaching-learning process.

But if we are to actually use the products of educational research there will have to be a psychological cleansing of tradition-oriented attitudes of schoolmaster and layman, alike. Until the idea takes root that education is subject to appraisal and change through research methods, we will continue to plod along with practice decades behind potential; a situation guaranteeing the suffocation or near-stifling of solid research, an open invitation to fakir and medicine man.

For its part, the public must come to a belief that public education (like public health, sanitation, and welfare) ought to be both a concern of the public and a responsibility of specialists in the field. The

educator-initiated movement to win support by involving every layman in the mechanics of instruction and mysteries of the curriculum will have to be reversed with the public accepting its real role as untutored critic. Modern urbanity must bow to even tribal customs that assigned the role of teacher to certain among the clan.

The farmer with his hybrid seed, the businessman dependent on market analysis, the housewife relying on carefully prescribed recipes and laboratory-tested ingredients can all recognize the need for specialization in education. Wise and effective leadership can guide them off the playing field back to the bleachers where they may cheer, jeer, and demand better efforts should the experts seem to let down.

Faculties, too, need to become psychologically receptive to experimentation and change in the classroom. Teachers in general have, unfortunately, not accepted the basic premise that research is valid, is superior to slowly-acquired prejudices masquerading as "facts." They will have to concede that their personal observations and experiences, strained through personality and emotions, are scarcely equivalent to objective, impersonal observation and unemotional conclusions of statistical manipulation.

An inevitable casualty of experimentation and change must be the sacred province of the classroom. Here a teacher's passive resistance may find verbal acceptance of changes in curriculum and methods but failure to carry them into daily practice. Teacher independence may well be circumscribed when it frustrates educational evolution. As techniques of teaching become more precise adherence to accepted practice must be insured from all instructors; supervision of the classroom must grow from pretense to reality.

"Individual differences" stands in dire need of becoming a guide to instruction rather than merely a term for speculation and conversation. The need to provide adequate learning experiences for every future citizen is only too obvious as frustration surrounds problems of the slow learner while the gifted is frequently served only by idle, if impressive, gestures. Meanwhile, the average youngster benefits from anonymity as his less extreme problems pass unnoticed.

Restructuring a mass education into a selective schooling is as improbable as a voluntary movement to convert automobiles into horse-

drawn carriages. Any program that blindly continues to refuse to tailor the classroom to meet the needs of every youngster seals its own doom as surely as it condemns society to a leveling toward mediocrity. Means can be found to meet the educational needs of every child, to provide society with the exploited potential of every individual.

While the burden appears to rest most heavily on the classroom teacher, the onus would realistically wear better on school administrators, local educational leadership. Classroom changes will most easily take place under leadership, guidance, demonstration, and persuasion. School administration must abandon carefully cultivated aloofness, direction by fiat, relegation of classroom activities to a lower priority than community relations or building programs. The painstakingly erected bulwark of administrative assistants and clerical help isolating principal or superintendent from mundane affairs of the classroom must be breached so that those responsible for instruction may carry out their duties. The administrative honeymoon commenced during World War II may well be terminated.

Finally, if the new education is to evolve through structured method rather than stagger afield in a madly haphazard complex of attack, retreat, disperse, and regroup, everyone directly or remotely concerned must accept the risks of research and experimentation. Thus, both success and failure must be anticipated and alike contribute to the improvement of the educational task. Minor successes cannot signal the personal triumph of a broad philosophical school and the resultant imposition of that entire blueprint, nor can isolated failure mean the damnation of all related proposals. Successful adaptation of the schools must reflect the spirit of compromise rather than the hectic swing of the pendulum as extreme groups gain momentary control of educational policy.

Certainly, careful building of a new education with realistic hopes for wise, permanent reforms calls for a new spirit of unity in and about education. In the bosom of this unity all groups must sacrifice for the common good, all egos must emerge a little eroded. Willing cooperation will be neither easy nor painless; it is only essential for a rational, methodical approach to educational problems.

Critical Thinking in the English Class

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The teaching of critical thinking has been in- and out-of-vogue for several decades. Through the years, many English teachers have accepted instruction in critical thinking as a legitimate component of the English program; they have attempted—by a variety of strategies—to induce their students to think “more clearly” or “more effectively” or, simply, “critically.” Some have designed skillful composition lessons which focused student attention upon certain aspects of problem-solving or critical thinking; some have created ingenious “thought-provoking” questions to accompany reading selections; some have cleverly structured class discussions in order to force students to react intelligently to significant issues. Other English teachers have attacked critical thinking more directly by constructing units around such topics as “Faulty Argumentation,” “Propaganda,” or “Straight and Crooked Thinking.” Others have prepared activities within units which were calculated to further student growth in specific critical thinking abilities. A few English teachers have set up rather elaborate programs in elementary logic and in semantics.

Much of the interest in critical thinking has been stimulated by curriculum guides and statements of educational objectives which make reference to “the development of clear and effective thinking.” The recent publication of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, *The Central Purpose of American Education*, has tended to generate considerable new interest in critical thinking, because “The central purpose of American education is,” according to the Commission, “the development of the ability to think.”¹

¹ Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, *The Central Purpose of American Education* (National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., 1961).

Many English teachers, influenced by this important publication and by their own desire to encourage critical thinking in their students, are asking provocative questions about this stimulating and potentially rewarding area. Some ask, "Can we really teach critical thinking in the English class?" Others—who believe that critical thinking can be taught and that they have an obligation to teach it—ask, "Which of the many skills and abilities associated with critical thinking should we try to develop in our classes?" and "How can we fit lessons in critical thinking into an already over-crowded English program?"

It is the general intention of the present paper to point toward answers to these questions. Specifically, the paper has a three-fold purpose: (1) to suggest that it may not be possible to teach critical thinking directly; (2) to report the results of a survey made by the writer to discover which critical thinking skills and abilities are most significant and which could probably be taught most effectively in his junior high school English classes; and (3) to recommend a feasible approach to critical thinking which grew out of his attempts to teach critical thinking in his classes at the Winchester, Massachusetts, Junior High School.

Can We Teach Critical Thinking?

Before teachers plan exercises, lessons, units, or programs in critical thinking, they should be reminded that *critical thinking abilities are only postulates*. Investigators have, for purposes of discussion and analysis, isolated, defined, and listed as many as thirty, separate abilities, skills, and higher mental processes which seem to be associated with critical thinking.² Examples of such abilities are: (1) recognizing inferences; (2) evaluating the reliability of evidence; (3) distinguishing between relevant and irrelevant evidence; (4) recognizing insufficient evidence; (5) distinguishing between weak and strong arguments; (6) distinguishing between fact and opinion; (7) distinguishing between the affective and informative connotations of language; and (8) recognizing the assumptions implied by a statement.

It should be noted that these abilities, *as they stand*, are "mental

² Harold L. Herber, *An Inquiry into the Effect of Instruction in Critical Thinking upon Students in Grades 10, 11 and 12*, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts, 1959.

constructs,” postulated for the convenience of the investigator or researcher. The teacher can teach *about* these critical thinking abilities, but he cannot directly provide for growth in them. In summarizing the present state of investigation of the critical thinking process, it may be said that the process seems to be a composite of as many as thirty, separate abilities, that these abilities remain, at the present time, postulates or mental constructs, and that they are affected in operation by attitudes.

Fortunately, it is very often possible to see these abilities function, because almost all of the postulated critical thinking abilities function in a verbal setting, and most of them can be taught as language abilities. It may only be possible to postulate a critical thinking ability, but it is possible to teach a corresponding critical *reading* or critical *listening* ability. For example, “the ability to recognize an inference” is a mental construct, postulated by investigators, but “the ability to recognize a *writer’s* inferences” is a teachable critical reading ability just as “the ability to recognize a *speaker’s* inferences” is a teachable critical listening ability.

“Can we teach critical thinking in the *English* class?” teachers have asked. If one accepts the point of view suggested here, the answer would be negative. The English teacher may teach *about* critical thinking, to be sure, but there is no evidence that teaching about critical thinking will make students think critically. However, most of the critical thinking abilities which investigators have isolated for purposes of analysis and research do have counterparts in the areas of critical reading and critical listening, so that a teacher who wishes to develop critical thinking abilities in his students may, with some confidence, proceed to develop corresponding critical reading and critical listening abilities.

Which Abilities Shall We Teach?

If there are approximately thirty different critical thinking skills and abilities, then the teacher who wants to provide instruction in critical thinking-reading-listening must ask two basic questions before planning a program of instruction: (1) Which of these abilities are the most important? and (2) Which can be developed with the greatest

success in the English class? In an effort to select only those skills and abilities which are of the highest significance and only those which could be developed effectively in his junior high school English classes, the writer made a survey of expert opinion.

First, an investigation of the literature was made in order to locate, describe, and list all the skills and abilities which are associated with critical thinking. A list was then compiled^a and presented to a jury of experts (an expert was defined as one who was or recently had been engaged in research in critical thinking, the thinking process, semantics, logic, propaganda analysis, *etc.*) The jury included: Mary Austin, John B. Carroll, George W. Goethals, Donald Oliver, and Edwin Sauer from the Harvard Graduate School of Education; James Baker, Ralph Garry, William Perry, and Glenn Wilcox from Boston University; Daniel Marshall and C. B. Wellington from Tufts University; George Aherne from Boston State College; Frank Marsh from Northeastern University; and Stuart Chase.

Members of the jury were requested to delete from the list any skill or ability which, in their judgment, did not conform to the following criteria: (1) the skill or ability is an important component of the critical thinking process, and (2) it can probably be taught in a ninth-grade English class.

A skill or ability was selected for inclusion in the junior high school English program in critical thinking-reading-listening only if seventy-five percent or more of those polled concurred that it was important and that it probably could be developed effectively at the ninth-grade level. The following five abilities were selected by means of this survey of expert opinion:

- (1) The ability to evaluate the reliability of evidence.
- (2) The ability to distinguish between statements of fact and statements of opinion.
- (3) The ability to distinguish between the affective and the informative connotations of words.
- (4) The ability to recognize the bias of the writer (or speaker).
- (5) The ability to recognize a writer's (or speaker's) inferences.

Here, then, are five abilities which are important and teachable.

^a One section of the writer's list can be found in Edwin Sauer, *English in the Secondary School* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1961) p. 126.

However, three comments about the selection process need to be made. First, this was an opinion poll, and it is possible that another group of experts would have selected a different set of abilities. Second, the instructions to the jury were so structured that only abilities which could be taught in an *English* class were chosen; it is conceivable—and very probable—that the same jury would have selected other abilities if it had been asked to pick those which might be developed in a ninth-grade science class. Third, statistical researchers, using factor analysis, might be able to discover those abilities which are of the highest significance to the total critical thinking process and justify their selection statistically.

Despite the limitations inherent in any survey of expert opinion, the list presented here does provide a reasonable and authoritative—though tentative—answer to the question, “What critical thinking abilities shall we try to teach?”

How Shall We Go About It?

The question has been raised, “How can we fit lessons in critical thinking into an already over-crowded English program?” The English teacher who wishes to turn his students into critical thinkers may not need—according to the point of view of this paper—to make drastic changes in his English program. He may not need to plan special lessons and units in critical thinking; such planning may actually be a waste of time and effort. By refocusing and revising existing lessons and units, the English teacher may be able to provide for more significant growth in the postulated critical thinking abilities.

While it may be impossible to directly teach critical thinking abilities, it is possible to promote growth in corresponding critical reading and critical listening abilities. Consequently, the English teacher may not be able to teach “the ability to recognize inferences,” but he can provide practice in “the ability to recognize a writer’s inferences” as part of regular class work in reading skills and he can promote growth in “the ability to recognize a speaker’s inferences” as part of a unit in listening or critical listening.

For purposes of explanation, the following hypothetical classroom situation is presented.

Mr. A has decided to "do something about critical thinking" in his ninth-grade English class. He has selected three critical thinking abilities which he would like to develop in his students: (1) recognizing inferences, (2) distinguishing between fact and opinion, and (3) recognizing bias. Rather than attempt to teach these three abilities directly, he has chosen to work with the corresponding critical reading and critical listening abilities.

As part of his weekly work in reading skills, he has prepared a series of reading exercises designed to provide practice in: (1) recognizing a writer's inferences, (2) distinguishing between printed statements of fact and statements of opinion, and (3) recognizing a writer's bias. Each week, following a brief lesson, students read passages that Mr. A has had duplicated from magazines and newspapers. They then identify inferences the writers have made, label underlined statements as "Fact" or "Opinion," and indicate possible bias in the printed materials. The exercises and accompanying answer keys, arranged in sequence from relatively simple examples of fact and opinion, inference, and bias to much more difficult examples, permit Mr. A's students to develop these three important critical reading abilities over a period of several weeks.

As part of a unit in listening in the same ninth-grade class, Mr. A has included a variety of listening activities which he has designed to encourage growth in: (1) recognizing a speaker's inferences, (2) distinguishing between oral statements of fact and opinion, and (3) recognizing a speaker's bias. Students listen to taped reproductions of political speeches, television and radio commercials, and conversations recorded in and around the school. They indicate on separate Response Sheets examples of fact and opinion, bias, and inference.

A program in critical reading and critical listening such as the hypothetical Mr. A has established has the advantage of achieving certain specific objectives in critical reading and critical listening. It is suggested here that such a program may be more effective in producing critical thinkers than a program which provided definite lessons and units in critical thinking.

English teachers are in a unique position to assist students in becoming critical thinkers. Students are not going to learn to think critically by having discussions about the importance of critical thinking; they are going to learn to think critically by having practice in using important critical thinking skills and abilities. It is the basic assumption of the present paper, however, that these skills and abilities are mental constructs postulated for the convenience of the investigator

and that they cannot be taught directly. Many of the critical thinking skills and abilities, fortunately, can be seen in operation in reading and listening. Therefore, the English teacher who wishes to make his students think critically should concentrate upon developing certain critical reading and critical listening abilities which correspond to the postulated critical thinking abilities.

The English teacher who chooses this approach to critical thinking will have the comforting knowledge that he is doing something tangible to develop important critical reading and critical listening abilities and that he is probably doing more to develop the corresponding critical thinking abilities than he would if he chose merely to teach *about* these abilities.

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A Proposal For Improving High School Science Teaching

H. SEYMOUR FOWLER
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The field of science education is in a state which presupposes great change. All over our nation scientists and educators are taking stock of present offerings and proposing changes. Many national curriculum studies are in initial or final test and feedback stages. Others show evidence in the embryonic state. All of these evidences of a concern for the future of science education are encouraging.

There is also evidence of the realization that perhaps science instruction is becoming so important that supervision in the area is important. Evidence for this comes from the increasing numbers of announcements of positions such as Heads of Science Departments, Science Supervisors, Science Coordinators, and Science Specialists which are listed in Educational Placement Bureaus.

All of these developments help to strengthen the existing science education curriculum. Nevertheless, it seems to this writer that we are neglecting one possibility for making a real definite impact on the science curriculum. Reference is made here to the establishment of positions which have been called Science Counselors or Science Consultants. Since the former title, or at least a portion of it, may connote a guidance function and may even have been pre-empted by workers in guidance; let us choose the latter term, Science Consultant, for the purpose of this proposal. What follows will be a discussion of the responsibilities of a Science Consultant. The Science Consultant is a traveling consultant working with a number of schools and their science teachers within easy commuting distance of the central headquarters.

Before discussing responsibilities, perhaps a look at the person who might be qualified is in order. It would seem that enthusiasm for the teaching profession is a prerequisite characteristic of the Science

Consultant. He should have had at least five years of successful science teaching experience. He should have a pleasant personality and be able to work with persons of his own age and also those who are older and more experienced teachers. He should have been active in professional science teaching societies. Most important, perhaps, of all objective measurements of capability; he should have both a breadth and depth of knowledge in his field. This infers the completion of both a major in the sciences as an undergraduate and a content area masters degree. He should be well informed in professional education. With dual preparation in breadth and depth both in the sciences and in professional education he will be prepared to act effectively in his relationships with teachers, professional educators, and professional scientists. With a degree of sophistication in both areas, he will find himself acceptable in either of the latter two groups. One might classify him as a hybrid, a true Science Educator. The foregoing gives some idea about "Who is the ideal Science Consultant?"

The next question might be the, "Where shall his headquarters be?" A most appropriate location is a large University. At such a location all the facilities of the large institution will be available. These include authorities in most fields of the sciences, the library, and the professional school.

Who is to pay for the operation? The manner of support in individual locations probably would vary considerably. However, one generalization might be in order. It would seem that the Extension Division of the University plus the cooperating School Districts which utilize the services of the Science Consultant might jointly support the program. A complete program would involve three traveling Science Consultants if we consider mathematics as a science. In other words, three positions should be authorized. One Consultant should be well prepared in the biological sciences, another in the physical sciences, and a third in mathematics. This would be the ideal combination. However, another possibility suggests itself. If one of the Consultants were well trained in the physical sciences and mathematics while a second had definite strength in the biological sciences plus some depth of knowledge in the physical sciences; this team of Consultants with but two members probably could function effectively.

What are some of the duties which might be performed by the Science Consultant? One of the important duties is subject matter counseling. This assistance to the practicing teacher can take many forms. Subject matter conferences and workshops involving the teachers and University personnel are useful. The Consultants should have available, or on loan from the University, reference materials in the subject matter area. The Consultant should be a liaison person between the professional scientist and the teacher. The Consultant's responsibility would involve finding answers to questions by working with University personnel who are active in the variety of specializations now representing science. When the situation warrants it, the scientists should be available for conferences with teachers in the field.

The Consultant would be available for methods and materials counseling also. In this capacity his knowledge of the selection of and use of scientific apparatus would be utilized. Demonstration sessions involving the Consultant in workshop sessions with the teachers would be an appropriate procedure. Individual and group work sessions for construction of improvised equipment should be organized. A fund should be made available which would make possible the accumulation in quantity of printed materials for distribution to the cooperating teachers. Science facilities planning is another function which should be included in the Consultants' activities. Sessions on film evaluation should be undertaken. A current list of films, and filmstrips for science teaching should be developed as a result of periodic evaluation sessions. Another function of the Consultant is related to textbook selection. The Consultants' library should have all of the high-school science texts. These should be made available to the teachers on short term loans. In the process of textbook selection, the Consultant should act as a resource person working with the science teacher and administrator during the selection process. The Consultants' services should be available to schools which wish to initiate or establish science fairs, science projects, science clubs, and other similar out-of-class science activities. In this function, the Science Consultant can be most effective in stimulating interest and working with the mechanics of operation of the activity.

Problems in science curriculum construction should also be the

function of the Consultant. Many school systems are now in the process of studying their existing curriculums. There are many new curriculum proposals now in operation. As examples we might mention three; Biological Sciences Curriculum Study, Physical Sciences Study Committee, and the Chemical Bond Approach Committee. The Science Consultant should be in a position to work with teachers in the development of new science curriculums or revision of existing science curriculums. As stated in other sections of this paper, here again there develops the opportunity for joint planning and cooperation between the science teachers, the Science Consultant, the professional scientist, and the professional educator.

There seems to be evidence that scientists make their vocational choice at a fairly early age. Hence career guidance becomes important if we are to maintain a supply of professional scientists. The Science Consultant has a distinct function here also. His responsibility may be the organization of the science career days at the University. Speakers who are practicing scientists may be procured by the Consultant for high-school career days. The Consultant should accumulate science career guidance information. These should be made available to guidance counselors in the cooperating schools.

Science teachers, in general, do not seem to support their professional societies. This is unfortunate since membership in the society brings so many benefits to the profession and to the individual. The Science Consultant can be very effective in encouraging teachers to join and become active in their professional societies. Reference here is not only to the national societies but also to local science teaching organizations. The Consultant may assist in establishment of local county groups and may help the group in providing programs.

It is important for the Consultant to become active in cooperative efforts with the State Department of Education. This can be accomplished through work on curriculum or other State-sponsored activities to improve science instruction.

In conclusion, it would seem appropriate to establish a Science Education Advisory Committee which would act with the Consultant in the development of his program. The Advisory Committee should have representation from the professional scientists, the professional

educators, and from The State Department of Education. The function of the Advisory Committee would include any activity which would help to make the program of the Science Consultant more effective. The Advisory Committee should be a working committee and not an "on paper" organization. The Committee should meet regularly and aid in assessing the effectiveness of the program, and also help to bring all of the resources available into action for the development of sound, effective science teaching programs.

There seems to be one limitation concerning widespread adoption of a program as has been described. This is the provision that the Science Consultant be headquartered at the large University. This seems essential if the Consultant is to have available the supporting services which have been described. One might ask if such a program has been attempted. The answer to this is yes. Four institutions, The University of Nebraska, The University of Oregon, The Pennsylvania State University, and The University of Texas developed pilot Science Consultant programs during 1956-58 in cooperation with the American Association for the Advancement of Science and with support from The Carnegie Corporation of New York. The programs were successful. This article is presented in the hope that other institutions will consider establishment of similar programs for the improvement of science teaching.

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Children's Literature

AGLE, NAN. *Makon and the Dauphin*. Scribners, 1961. 126p. \$2.95.

Based on historical fact, this unusual story of a courageous Indian boy captured and taken to France as a gift to the king, will fascinate elementary readers who like ■ tale that is different. Beautiful format, illustrated with line drawings, and very readable as to type. Although the style of the writing is simple the story maintains a lively interest throughout. Recommended.

ANCKARSWARD, KARIN. *Bonifacius the Green*. Abelard, 1961. 96p.

This delightfully fantastic story was published in Sweden in 1952 and translated into English in 1961. John Peter and Britta make the acquaintance of Mr. Bonifacius, a green sort of lizard related to dragons. The little Bonnie Bonifacius becomes their occasional playmate, always with startling developments. A story to tickle the hearts of children 8 to 12.

ARUNDEL, JOCELYN. *Mighty Mo*. McGraw Hill, 1961. 124p. \$2.95.

This story will give elementary readers a vivid picture of life in the wilds of Africa. A moving plot is built around Jay Clifford, twelve year old son of the ranger whose duty includes protecting the wildlife as well as the property of the natives. Jay has a fine

appreciation of the problem, the working out of which makes an absorbing story. Recommended.

BEST, HERBERT. *Bright Hunter of the Skies*. Macmillan, 1961. 164p. \$3.50.

This beautiful book, decorated with delicate line drawings, aims to give elementary readers minute details of falconry in the story of Jan. It was a rough life Jan had to live, under every discouraging condition, trying to make his way and to care for his falcon and his dogs. He meets with success at last under very unusual circumstances.

BIXBY, WILLIAM. *Havoc*. Longmans, 1961. 181p. \$3.50.

As the title implies this is an unusual, interesting and well researched book on the worst disasters that modern men has known—hurricanes, tidal waves, earthquakes, volcanic eruptions—all cataclysms of nature. The chapters are all interesting for they contain an account of a major disaster plus information on nature, causes, effects, and protection from each of these phenomenon. Exciting to read, as well as being a good source book.

BLACK, COLIN. *Lands and Peoples of Rhodesia and Nyasaland*. Macmillan, 1961. 104p. \$1.75.

This book is a brief, but fairly interesting and informative history of the development

of one of the most important countries in Africa, south of the Sahara. It shows the growth of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, mostly in this century, which has much potential and is being watched by the world.

BLOCH, MARIE. *Doll House Story*. Walck, 1961. 63p. \$3.00.

It is Ellen's doll house, but Julie likes to play with it. Then the two girls had a quarrel, and the doll house and Trilby, Papa and Madame Pumpernickel fall on hard times. To make it worse, the cat likes to sleep in the doll house, and friend mouse can't come. The way things work out will interest girls about 6 to 10.

BRADSHAW, JOHN. *That Blizzard Cow*. Hastings House, 1961. 124p. \$2.95.

Of special interest to boys who like live stock and country life, this account of the training and care of this unusual cow is aimed at upper elementary reading.

BRICK, JOHN. *Yankees on the Run*. Duell, Sloan, 1961. 149p. \$2.95.

Two Union soldiers from the First Vermont Calvary, escape from prison at Andersonville, by pretending they are dead. This story relates their adventures as they shake off one pursuit after another, trying to get back to Sherman's army. Upper elementary will find the rather brief story very exciting, as they get a gruesome picture of war experience.

BUCK, WILLIAM. *Doctor Anger's Island*. Abelard Schuman, 1961. 191p. \$3.50.

A summer spent on an island in Lake Huron, a Civil War castle, a literary recluse, and some quotations from Shakespeare form the basis for this exciting mystery for junior high readers. How these young sleuths and their pet monkey locate some missing poems will appeal to both boys and girls.

CAIDIN, MARTIN. *Test Pilot*. Dutton, 1961. 183p. \$3.00.

Here is factual, up to date unsensational reporting on this country's experimental flight program, an excellent book for background reading on Lt. Col. Glenn. Mr.

Caidin begins his account of test pilots with the Wright brothers, gives special attention to Herb Fisher, and ends with Project Mercury. Publishing date 1961, there are excellent photographs. Highly recommended.

CARBONNIER, JEANNE. *Above All a Physician*. Scribners, 1961. 178p. \$2.95.

This is the story of a dedicated French boy and it will give a serious reader of elementary level, an enriching study of life in France. Written by a French woman, the decisions and reactions of the hero, as well as the picture of social and political life of that time, are produced here with understanding and authority.

CARPER, JEAN. *Wonderland of Tomorrow*. Whitman, 1961. 94p. \$2.50.

The marvels of tomorrow's scientific technology as envisioned by today's thinkers. The seeds of aspiration are in the text. Intermediates should find them.

CLARKE, TOM. *Back to Anchorage*. Lothrop, 1961. 224p. \$3.00.

Upper elementary boys who like to mix hunting with adventure, will enjoy Jeff's experiences in learning to hunt in Alaska with an odd character called Windy. Jeff has an unusual problem of his own, resulting from association with a man whose background he did not know. The boy has had problems before, and is trying to keep going in the right direction. Much suspense.

CLAYTON, BARBARA. *Tomboy*. Funk & Wagnalls, 1961. 183p. \$2.95.

Fifteen year old "Gabby" Lucett, the only member of her family not interested in music, has a fiery temper and tomboyish ways which her family find hard to change. Finally with the aid of the next door neighbor, who is sympathetic, and a crisis in the family she sheds her tomboy ways and accepts her grown up role. Junior high school girls will enjoy reading about "Gabby."

CORBETT, SCOTT. *Danger Point*. Little, Brown, 1962. 141p. \$3.25.

In 1852 the Birkenhead sank off the coast of Africa. The courage and discipline of her crew and passengers became the example for persons caught in later similar disasters.

Mr. Corbett seeks to imbue his young readers with the intense admiration he feels for the brave persons aboard the Birkenhead.

DEAN, GRAHAM. *Deadline for Him*. Criterion, 1961. 190p. \$3.50.

Working as a cub reporter for his uncle's newspaper one summer Jim Drummond learns the fundamentals of reporting as well as covering events ranging from a train wreck to political scandal and solves an improbable mystery at the same time. Boys and girls with an interest in reporting will like this one.

DOBLER, LAVINIA. *Cyrus McCormick*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 200p. \$2.25.

In his home in Virginia, Cyrus McCormick enjoyed working in the black smith shop. Many useful things were made there, and with experience Cyrus became skilled in drawing and craftsmanship. A typical American farm boy, he found time to play as well as doing a fine job in his school work. Middle elementary readers are familiar with his name and will enjoy reading about the things he did which led to his success.

DUNHAM, MONTREW. *Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr.* Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 200p. \$2.25.

This popular series bring middle elementary readers a lively account of a famous American family in this story of the childhood of Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr. Truly American in every detail it will broaden the vision of the young reader and his appreciation of American tradition and ideals.

EVANS, KATHERINE. *Raphael's Cat*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. unpag. \$3.50.

Centered around the blessing of the animals on Saint Anthony's day, this little book makes a nice addition to the social studies shelf to broaden the young reader's interest and knowledge of Mexican life and customs.

FERGUSON, ROBERT D. *Fur Trader*. Macmillan, 1961. 159p. \$2.50.

A documented story of another courageous American, one of the first English fur traders, one who owed his life many times to his ability to be friends with Indians. His exciting life story will absorb upper elementary readers, his experiences being a succession

of narrow escapes and survivals. He was presented at several famous peace councils, as his travels took him as far as the Saskatchewan River.

FURMAN, ABRAHAM. *Teen Age Ghost Stories*. Lantern, 1961. 189p. \$2.95.

Aimed at junior high school reading, this collection of eight ghost stories will surprise the young reader in that everything is explained. There is no unnatural nor romantic feature to any of them. However spine tingling the situation may appear to be, for every one there is a natural or scientific reason as a solution. The language is breezy, the situations rather banal.

GARBER, ELIZABETH. *Pat the Playground Leader*. Whitman, 1961. unpag. \$1.25.

Written for beginning readers, this brief story aims to enrich the primary social study program. The activities and interests of the group under the care of the play director are covered in a style suited to this level. Limited vocabulary, brief sentence structure, colorful pictures on each page will make the book interesting and useful to primary groups.

HECK, BESSIE. *Millie*. World, 1961. 185p. \$2.95.

Millie wanted more than anything else in the world, to go to school. However, her family moved every year and her father never made any plan about schooling for the children. She went when she could, and studied at home at other times. The story is a good study of living conditions in Oklahoma in the early 1900's. Excellent family relations.

HOBSON, BURTON. *Getting Started in Coin Collecting*. Sterling, 1961. 124p. \$2.50.

This very usable book is prepared from the collecting angle, which will interest elementary readers. It is well furnished with bibliography for further study, clear prints for identification, and some historical background for specific coins, mostly American. There is, however, no index.

HODGES, MARGARET. *What's for Lunch, Charley?* Dial, 1961. 72p. \$2.75.

Charley Rivers lived up town and walked to school by himself, right past the King Charles Hotel, with its fancy shops and all. His father hurried away to work every morning; his mother hurried away to the school where she taught, and sometimes Charley did not hurry enough and was late at school. This account of what happened to Charley one day will delight second and third grade readers. Recommended.

HOPKINS, JOSEPH. *Patriot's Progress*. Scribners, 1961. 245p. \$3.95.

This is the first good novel of the Revolutionary War I have ever read which I consider highly suitable for high school students. The story follows a young New England physician whose philosophy changes from pacifism after the battles at Lexington and Concord. A fine, realistic miniature, the novel proves the Revolutionary War to be as rewarding a study as the Civil War, perhaps a more inspiring subject for young people. Highly recommended.

KEITH, FREDERICK. *Sunken Island*. Lothrop, 1961. 216p. \$3.00.

What boy would not be thrilled to be allowed to go on an undersea exploration. Especially if his father was an expert in the field? And to search for gold ingots in a sunken galleon of fabulous Spanish days? Junior high school readers may have this thrill in imagination with Rick and Larry, two seventeen year old boys who have exciting adventures.

KESSLER, ETHEL AND L. P. *Do Baby Bears Sit in Chairs*. Doubleday, 1961. unpag. \$2.50.

Whimsical questions and entrancing illustrations for young children. Before children are through the first grade they can read this book themselves.

KNIGHT, FRANCIS. *Last of the Lallow's*. St. Martin's Press, 1961. 222p. \$3.25.

Set in mid-seventeenth century England this novel tells of Margaret Lallow who struggles to keep her home as it is in spite of the political trouble between the king and Parliament. Even when all seem lost she finds a new home on this side of the Atlantic. Junior high school girls will enjoy this one.

KRANTZ, HAZEL. *100 Pounds of Popcorn*. Vanguard, 1961. 126p. \$2.95.

Eleven year old Andy Taylor likes to figure out things, and when his family got stuck in a traffic jam coming from the beach one hot day, he suggested turning off on a country road. On this road they found right in their way a hundred pound bag of popcorn. Andy at once figured out what he could do with that bag of corn. Middle elementary readers will be delighted with the details of this plan. Recommended.

LANE, NEOLA. *Get Along Mules*. Lippincott, 1961. 155p. \$3.25.

A lively account of the journey the Ellis Family made to Colorado, where the mother had gone to recover her health. Aimed at elementary reading the style is simple and amusing, the events natural and timely as they meet up with such things as a medicine show, a new thing called an automobile, a prairie storm and so on. An interesting background for social studies, and one children will enjoy.

LAWSON, DON. *Young People in the White House*. Abelard-Schuman, 1961. 160p. \$3.00.

Upper elementary readers will enjoy these intimate stories that have been taken from the daily lives of the families whose names are so well known in the head lines and history books. The human interest element is presented here in a highly readable style with illustrations in black and white. The collection should prove very popular.

LOKEN, ANNA BELLE. *No Hurdle Too High*. Lothrop, 1961. 151p. \$3.00.

Karl Madsen's transformation from boyhood makes a delightful and appealing story for Junior high students. His courage and determination to leave his native Norway and journey alone to the land of wealth and opportunity to join his cousin. He suffers many hardships, but his job of caring for a horse suits him, as he finds an opportunity to continue his education.

LOOMIS, ROBERT. *Great American Fighter Pilots of World War II*. Random House, 1961. 208p. \$1.95.

Junior high school boys who like to read modern war background will be thrilled by

this account of certain American heroes. Pointing up important events the author presents a drama of exciting situations featuring famous names, which will be read and re-read many times.

McCAIG, ROBERT. *That Nest Kid*. Scribners, 1961. 191p. \$2.95.

Fifteen year old Billy, left an orphan, has little to build his future on except his love for land and his desire to have a home of his own. The story takes place during the home-steading days in Montana, and shows how the boy, with little schooling and no resource, makes a place for himself in the midst of unfriendly and even dangerous surroundings—horse thieves and plenty of discouragements. Upper elementary reading.

McELFRESH, ADELINE. *To Each Her Dream*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1961. 191p. \$3.50.

Sarah-Eleanor Tarrent wanted to follow in her father's footsteps and become a doctor, but the medical profession in 1840 was not open to women. Leaving Indiana for the new Oregon territory Sarah-Eleanor discovers that skillful hands mean more than a diploma. This book tells of a girl's struggle to reach her goal and shows an understanding of the aspirations of the young.

MANUS, WILLARD. *Sea Treasure*. Doubleday, 1961. 139p. \$2.50.

Adventure on the high sea, off the Florida coast, that will delight Junior high boys. As the Sea Queen moved from the dock Carlos jumped in behind it, so his friends Dave, Jack, and Bill picked him up. They began a stormy voyage racing for an underwater treasure that enemies of Carlo's country had dropped into the Atlantic.

MARSH, SYDNEY. *The Street*. Dorance, 1961. 277p. \$3.95.

A well written first novel tells the story of Valentine MacDonald from childhood through her college days, romance and marriage. Her love, devotion to and domination by her mother seems to go farther than most girls, but her love for the stage carries her on when everything else seems dark. Alcoholism is well treated in this book—as a disease that can only be cured if the person wants to be cured.

MASTERS, KELLY. *Salvage Diver*. Holiday House, 1961. 220p. \$2.95.

Joe Panther and his mate, Tiger Tail (two young seminole Indians) spent a summer full of adventure with their deep sea charter cruiser as they search for sunken ships for a salvage company. Adventure for junior high boys in the fabulous world under the sea.

MILLER, ALICE. *Make Way for Peggy O'Brien*. Lippincott, 1961. 120p. \$2.95.

Peggy O'Brien was only thirteen years old, but she had great dreams of becoming a famous movie star. She entered contest and in one way and another got her family involved in many confusing experiences. Facing reality and meeting people helped her to learn what was worthwhile in her life, and then she was able to make a decision that surprised everyone. All ends happily.

MILLER, HELEN. *Long Valley*. Doubleday, 1961. 284p. \$2.95.

Seventeen year old Marney Eagle kept house and tried to counter balance an impractical father every since her mother's death. When they move to Long Valley Idaho, to begin a cattle ranch Marney faces problems about her family and her future. How she chooses her own future makes a realistic, romantic novel teenage girls will enjoy.

MINIER, NELSON. *Lady in the Jungle*. Macrae Smith, 1961. 190p. \$2.95.

This biography is not altogether successful as such because of the oversimplification especially in handling of what Miss Kingsley accomplished against the social patterns of the times. But for a picture of Africa as it was emerging into the world politics, the book is very valuable, and many of the descriptive parts are alive beautiful. Superior students of upper elementary level will enjoy it.

NICOLLE, JACQUES. *Louis Pasteur*. Basic Books, 1961. 252p. \$4.50.

Biography written for young people. Significant is the treatment of the scientific methods as a continuing factor in Pasteur's life.

NYE, HARRIET KAMM. *Destination Danger*. Westminster, 1961. 189p. \$2.95.

Nineteen year old Ricardo Torres, growing up in the shadow of his famous Mexican father, has failed at everything except his ambition to become a pilot. Fine—but from there difficulties multiply as three successive tornadoes hit Tampico and Ricardo joins the evacuation crew as interpreter. The general tone of the book is “Spanglish,” basic flying jargon, and general Pan American social problem.

ORMSBY, VIRGINIA. *Long Lonesome Train Whistle*. Lippincott, 1961. 106p. \$3.25.

A sympathetic picture of Southern life for a long time ago forms the background for this story about Lee, a ten year old boy who was determined to be a railroad man some day. Humorous adventures that farm children have, problems that families face when there is not enough money, tragic experiences which draw people together all this makes the human interest element of the story. Beautiful format.

PACKARD, ANDREW. *Mr. Spindles and the Spiders*. Macmillan, 1961. unp. \$3.00.

One day Mr. Spindles found a spider in his cupboard. After that he had a terrible time trying to get rid of the spiders, until at last he was about to burn his house down to get them out. Just before he did this he went to visit a friend and had a wonderful dinner at his house. Then he went home and lived happily in his house. Children about 6 to 8 will be delighted to find out how he did it.

RACHLIS, EUGENE. *Story of the U.S. Coast Guard*. Random House, 1961. 176p. \$1.95.

This vivid account of the activities of the Coast Guard will absorb upper elementary readers, as similar titles of the popular Landmark series. It covers dramatic events of war times as well as the peace time work of facing gangs of smugglers and outlaws who operate along the coast. The last chapters cover the work of rescue and safety as it is performed daily with courage and self dedication.

RATIGAN, ELEANOR. *Deep Water*. Lothrop, 1961. 158p. \$3.00.

Sue Ellen had a teen age complex which centered around the feat she had about swimming. Then she is invited to visit her sister who lives near the coast in Florida. The situation there with this happily married sister is fine, they do not urge her to join the gang at the beach, but gradually she got a better point of view of the sport and before she knew it she is swimming.

SAVITT, SAME. *There Was a Horse*. Dial, 1961. 96p. \$2.75.

Bill, a high school senior, needed money and he needed plans for his future, but he spent what he had on a gray horse for a reason he could not even explain. He loved the horse and trained him carefully, but in every outstanding event they entered, the horse failed him completely. Then a new farm hand, who knew about horses, came to work on this farm, and the story took a different turn. Elementary readers will love it. Beautiful drawings by the author.

SONNEBORN, RUTH. *Question and Answer Book of Everyday Science*. Random House, 1961. 69p. \$1.95.

An unusually attractive book designed to provide children in the intermediate grades with the answer they want about applied science. Concise, simplified, yet valid explanations lead to further inquiry. Well illustrated and controlled reading level.

STERLING, DOROTHY. *Ellen's Blue Jays*. Doubleday, 1961. 42p. \$2.50.

This well written and beautifully illustrated book covers the life cycle of the blue jay as seen through eyes of a little girl. The book is worthwhile from the standpoint both of entertainment and instruction.

SUTTON, SHAUN. *Queen's Champion*. St. Martin's, 1961. 245p. \$3.75.

England during Queen Elizabeth's reign—the time of the threatened invasion of the Spanish Armada—the Penlynden family finds itself accused of a plot to overthrow the queen. Young Roger Penlynden and a small band of fugitive followers have many action packed adventures and hair raising escapes in their efforts to restore the Penlynden's good name. Junior high level.

TUNIS, EDWIN. *Frontier Living*. World, 1961. 165p. \$5.95.

This is a superb volume for the junior and senior high school levels. The writing is good, and the illustrations, though uncolored, are excellent.

UNNERSTAD, EDITH. *Journey To England*. Macmillan, 1961. 211p. \$3.25.

The reaction of a fourteen year old boy and his younger sister to the mysterious disappearance of their mother, makes an absorbing adventure for upper elementary readers. The journey they must take in their search for her, leads from Sweden to London, and the reader meets varied characters in many unusual circumstances. Thoughtful readers will find the story very broadening.

WEIR, ROSEMARY. *Albert the Dragon*. Abelard Schuman, 1961. 107p. \$2.75.

Albert is a lovable dragon, who is lonely and wants to be friends with children. This collection is a series of experiences he had with his human friends. British in atmosphere and style, the story will have an unusual slant for American reader. It is illustrated in humorous black and white drawings by a well known British artist and is aimed at entertaining the very young child.

WHITE, ROBB. *Flight Deck*. Doubleday, 1961. 215p. \$2.95.

With mounting suspense this book tells the story of John Lawrence, Lt. during World War II and his attempt to reach a tiny island near Guadalcanal, with a radio, to watch for Japanese bombers. This and his attempts to stay alive and accomplish his purpose in sight of the enemy make interesting adventure for boys.

WYCKOFF, JAMES. *Kendall of the Coast Guard*. Doubleday, 1961. 141p. \$2.50.

Tad Kendall joined the Coast Guard for six months rather than go into the silver business with his father, because he wanted excitement of an outdoor life. In the Coast Guard he finds both danger and adventure. This book will appeal to Junior high boys.

Education and Psychology

BURNETT, DOROTHY. *Your Preschool Child*. Holt, 1961. 272p. \$4.95.

This book gives excellent coverage of the many problems and challenges involved in day to day living with young children and offers practical and helpful suggestions for meeting them. It is written with humor and understanding by a parent for parents and from a parent point of view. It should serve not only as a practical guide and reference book but should also help parents, as the author suggests, to "get more fun out of the game"

BUSS, ARNOLD. *Psychology of Aggression*. Wiley, 1961. 307p. \$7.95.

This book is a useful summary of research in the fields of aggression, hostility, and anger. Studies in these fields are critically evaluated. Aggression is related to prejudice, psychopathology, verbal behavior, and other topics.

CANDLAND, DOUGLAS AND CAMPBELL, J. F. *Exploring Behavior*. Basic Books, 1961. 179p. \$4.50.

This contribution to the Science and Discovery gives an introduction to experimental psychology. Selected topics are discussed in detail, and the style is readable, if inexact.

CARMICHAEL, OLIVER. *Graduate Education*. Harper, 1961. 213p. \$4.50.

One of the most thoughtful and provocative books on this topic which has been published in a long while. The author, who is a highly respected educator, is presently a consultant for the Ford Foundation of the Advancement of Education.

LAPATI, AMERICO. *High School Curriculum for Leadership*. Bookman, 1961. 74p. \$2.50.

Probably an excellent book for its intended readers. It contains many challenges which should be critically analyzed. Many of the basic assumptions about the high school curriculum presented by the author are highly controversial.

LINDVALL, C. M. *Testing and Evaluation: An Introduction*. Harcourt, 1961. 264p. \$4.50.

Relating to a fundamental responsibility of all teachers, this book provides realistic and specific suggestions for measuring and evaluating instructional outcomes. Particularly helpful are the methods for converting various types of observation into objective and quantitative scales. Statistical procedures and their interpretations are presented with simple illustrations. A valuable handbook.

ROBACK, ABRAHAM. *History of Psychology and Psychiatry*. Phil. Lib., 1961. 422p. \$7.50.

This broad history begins with the Greeks and covers both European and American developments. It is told mainly through biographies of important contributors.

SCHONEL, FRED. *Psychology and Teaching of Reading*. Phil. Lib., 1962. 295p. \$6.00.

Since the author is Australian some of his ideas are based on assumptions which are difficult to follow. However this volume could be valuable both to teacher trainees and inexperienced primary and elementary teachers. Of special interest are many concrete examples of primary materials and methods.

Health and Physical Education

BUNN, JOHN. *Basketball Coach*. Prentice Hall, 1961. 216p. \$5.00.

This book, the first of a two volume set, deals with the present day coaches duties and responsibilities for recruiting, promotion, public relations, salesmanship and organization. Volume two will deal with playing techniques and drills. Together, the two volumes will provide a complete treatise on basketball.

Library Science

DELANEY, JACK JAMES. *School Librarian*. Shoe String, 1961. 183p. \$4.50.

Human relations problems involved in working with administrators, teacher, dis-

cipline cases, and others are interestingly and subjectively presented in a dozen chapters intended to stimulate school librarians to think of solutions. Valuable suggestions for evaluation of library service are included.

HARMAN, ELEANOR. *University as a Publisher*. Univ. of Toronto, 1961. 165p. \$3.50.

Articles on the various aspects of university presses, their output, their relation to the college book store, their editorial policies and the format of their output, emphasize the University of Toronto Press, whose Diamond Anniversary is celebrated by the publication of this handsome volume.

Literature

BEAVER, HAROLD. *American Critical Essays: 20th Century*. Oxford Univ., 1961. 364p. \$1.85.

The aim of this collection is to gather typical essays of some of the most distinguished critical writers in America in the last thirty years. A careful reading of these essays will show that this aim has been realized, both because of the style of the essays and because of the information and insight furnished on the authors discussed.

BOMBAUGH, CHARLES. *Oddities and Curiosities of Worlds and Literature*. Dover, 1961. 375p. \$1.50.

This book based upon the earlier and longer *Gleanings for the Curious* presents only the chapters dealing with language "curiosities."

WALSH, FRANCES. *That Eager Zest*. Lippincott, 1961. 215p. \$3.95.

Discriminatingly selected autobiographical accounts of childhood reading experiences from 47 writers, as varied as John Keats and Ellery Queen, but more of them writing today, affirm the enchantment that comes from the joyful meeting of children with the right books.

WEEKLEY, ERNEST. *Romance of Words*. Dover, 1960. 210p. \$1.25.

Folk etymology, family names, words of popular manufacture, words and places—these are only a few headings under which

the story of the romance of words is told. A fascination book for reading, an excellent book for reference.

Music

BOWEN, CATHERINE. *Free Artist*. Little, Brown, 1961. 412p. \$6.00.

Though first published in 1939, this biography of Anton and Nicholas Rubinstein remains the best on the subject in English. It is exceptionally well written, and should prove fascinating even to the non-musician. Anton was the greatest pianist of his time, and a prolific composer, but his educational and pioneering work was even more significant.

Reference

HOLT, ALFRED. *Phrase and World Origins*. Dover, 1961. 254p. \$1.35.

"Words have ancestors, too. It's great fun to trace them." This quotation shows just what Mr. Holt has done in this revised and enlarged edition of his earlier *Phrase Origins*.

Readers Guide to Everyman's Library. Dutton, 1961. \$1.95.

An alphabetical author, title and subject index of all books published in Everyman's Library, this guide is a useful tool. The annotations given of the works add to its usefulness.

Statemen's Yearbook. St. Martin Press, 1961. \$9.50.

This yearly authoritative handbook covers all countries. World Affairs presented here are equally useful to school, college, and public libraries.

WARRINGTON, JOHN. *Everyman's Classical Dictionary*. Dutton, 1961. 537p. \$4.95.

This dictionary is an authoritative and comprehensive guide to classical subjects, both myths and historical material. Time covered is 800 BC to 337 AD; countries included Pagan Greece and Rome.

Science and Mathematics

CORNWALL, IAN. *Making of Man*. Dutton, 1961. 63p. \$3.00.

Man's evolution as viewed through historical anthropology. Will interest the inquiring mind. Well illustrated and strongly bound. Junior high school reading level.

FRISCH, OTTO. *Atomic Physics Today*. Basic Books, 1961. 254p. \$4.50.

Popular account of atomic physics for the interested general reader. Ideas on a variety of subjects are presented in highly readable material.

JOSEPH, ALEXANDER. *Teaching High School Science: Sourcebook for the Physical Sciences*. Harcourt, 1961. 674p. \$7.95.

Easily the best of "how to do it" and "where to locate it" books for the science teacher. A must for those who take demonstrations and project work seriously. Suitable for all secondary science teachers.

WACHS, THEODORE. *Careers in Research Science*. Walck, 1961. 96p. \$3.50.

Rewarding reading on careers in the physical sciences and mathematics. A fine balance among presentation of detail and the creation of an image of service and responsibility.

Social Science

AYRES, CLARENCE. *Toward a Reasonable Society*. Univ. of Texas, 1961. 301p. \$4.75.

This is a defense of present day industrial culture. It is a creative work, drawing upon numerous areas of knowledge, ethics, sociology, economics, anthropology, history, philosophy, biology, and the graphic arts. Good for use as a text in general education courses on the college level.

AZOY, ANASTASIO. *Charge*. Longmans, 1961. 182p. \$3.95.

A short and interesting description of a short and spectacular little war. Colonel Azoy, himself a retired Army officer, ob-

viously enjoyed writing this readable and often humorous account.

COLEMAN, JAMES. *Adolescent Society*. Free Press, 1961. 368p. \$6.95.

In this book, the author has explored and analyzed the social systems of ten high schools of widely varied communities. This is an excellent study of social status.

DILTS, MARION. *Pageant of Japanese History*. Longmans, 1961. 368p. \$6.50.

This new edition of a well known social history of Japan reflects the author's experience before and after World War II. Readable, broad in scope and profusely illustrated, it is excellent as an introduction to the subject.

EATON, CLEMENT. *Growth of Southern Civilization*. Harper, 1961. 357p. \$4.50.

This is an absolutely first rate social, cultural and economic history of the antebellum South. As the most recent volume in the New American National Series, it more adequately meets the standards previously set.

LADER, LAWRENCE. *Bold Brahmins*. Dutton, 1961. 318p. \$5.00.

The abolition story in New England is decidedly not one of moderation; rather it is humanitarianism with a vengeance. The sometime prurient and generally fanatical activities of these latter day puritans are presented in a popular history spiced with delightful biographical sketches. A detailed, yet light, volume.

MCDERMOTT, JOHN FRANCIS. *Research Opportunities in American Cultural History*. Univ. of Kentucky Press, 1961. 205p. \$6.00.

The twelve essays in this volume make interesting and important reading for students of American cultural history. In no instance has the essayist claimed to be presenting a definitive or complete study of his topic, but in each case they have opened new avenues and challenged scholars, old and young, with possibilities for future investigation.

NORTON, ALICE. *Ride Proud Rebel*. World Pub., 1961. 255p. \$3.75.

The author of science fiction turns to Civil War biography in a story of a rebellious Texan boy who rises to a scout for Forrest during the agonizing retreat of the Army of the Tennessee from Harrisburg to its final surrender.

PIGNEY, JOSEPH. *For Fear We Shall Perish*. Dutton, 1961. 312p. \$5.00.

A mythical "Hasting's cutoff" lures the Donner Party of California bound pioneers through 500 miles of desert alive with Indian snipers and into the formidable Sierra Mountains. The story of this party, reduced from 70 to 41 members by the savage elements, starvation and murder, recounts one of the most brutal episodes in the Westward Expansion. This graphically detailed story related the struggle for life in a realism unusual for historical fiction.

Text

FOSTER, CHARLES. *Psychology for Life Today*. 2nd ed. American Technical Society, 1961. 430p. \$4.50.

This general psychology text is oriented toward high school students. Emphasis is given to life adjustment and everyday problems of living with others. The style is readable.

GOODNIGHT, CLARENCE. *Biology*. Wiley, 1961. 460p. \$6.95.

This book proves to be simply another addition to the vast number of general biology texts. The typography is good, the illustrations are pertinent, but there is no single characteristic that makes the book any better or any worse than others.

HORN, ANNABEL AND OTHERS. *Using Latin*, I rev. ed. Scott Foresman, 1961. \$4.08.

A lively text for beginners. Varied study helps, abundant reading material, attractive and informative illustrations, many of which are in color, are useful features of the book.

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PEABODY *Journal* OF EDUCATION

• 1962

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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

VOLUME 40

JULY, 1962

NUMBER 1

Editorial—

Time, Essence, and the Peabody Teacher

The members of the Peabody Staff are generally committed to industry. They teach twelve or fifteen or sixteen hours weekly. If one is a good teacher he spends considerable time in preparation. If he doesn't stay two jumps ahead of his students he will soon find himself four jumps behind them. He knows that last year's learning is not enough for this year's classes. It takes time for even a Peabody teacher to learn.

The Peabody teacher will average two plus committee assignments. These take up time and sometimes motivate headaches. But aren't headaches always one price we pay for "progress," whatever that is. She is invited to speak before a department of the teachers association, a PTA meeting, an AEC meeting, the English Teachers Guild, The Physical Education Conclave, and the Curriculum Council. More time! If her address doesn't manifest a fair amount of scholarship and a modicum of cuteness, all properly compounded, the word gets around both to her discredit and that of the college.

It is quite possible and commendable that the teacher might wish to write an article, or under stress of extreme temptation to compose a book. The rumor that a great deal of time and drudgery is involved has been verified. Perhaps he would like to raise a garden in the

rearmost limits of his backyard. Indeed recently one was seen carrying a bunch of beets around the campus with a look of victory bright upon his face. Time, among other commodities, went into the achievement of those beets. But he managed it. There are occasions when a student who is engaged upon a term paper is entitled to some counsel, some guidance. And, sooner or later, the teacher will use some more time reading critically, for grade purposes, that paper (along with thirty others). Then he, specifically if of senior rank, will find himself in intense demand for professional consideration of that most sacred of college topics, the thesis. If the student is a prodigy and has a subject already chosen all that is wanted is a more or less detailed direction as to what to do with it. More often the student is frightened by facing a world practically barren of thesis topics and convinced that if he doesn't soon use squatter's rights upon one of the scant list still available it will be too late. It takes some time for the teacher to reassure him that both teacher and student will be exhausted long before the subjects are.

The Peabody teacher is usually a church goer, often a teacher or officer. That is the way he was reared, and so he continues. That demands more time. But it is fittingly used.

The Peabody teacher does her quota of laundry work, and in the strengthening of her garments, weakened by use. Other housekeeping chores demand more time. She makes some social calls and visits those in distress. Frequently in the name of good citizenship, she occupies herself with civic and political projects.

One of the merits of the Peabody teacher is approachability. Easy access to one is one of the college's best traditions. If his, or her, best judgment is reasonably relevant to the work of the college it is available. More time, for the judgment when given does not belong in the "snap" category.

One Peabody teacher has an oddly interesting verbal tendency. Early in the first paragraph of any statement he makes at a faculty meeting he uses those resounding words "Time is of the essence." Some of us are more inclined to wait eagerly to hear those words than to consider their meaning. A little sober thought would convince us that his cliché, after the fashion of many clichés, is heavy with meaning. If time yields essence then indeed is the Peabody teacher essential.

Pillar of Peabody

DR. NORMAN FROST, editor of the Peabody Journal of Education from 1928-1932, died July 18 at his Nashville home. Forty-seven of his seventy-five years had been spent in the service of Peabody College. As far as is known, that is the longest tenure in the institution's history.

It was a good tenure, favorable to both man and college. It gave him a wife, a home, two children, a church, a multitude of friends, citizenship in a cultured city, and an opportunity for educational service shaped to his personality and to his professional talents.

For a generation and a half a steady stream of students flowed into his classroom, and there they listened, recited, took notes, debated, asked, pondered, and grew brighter-eyed, clearer-minded, and stouter-hearted. Now children of his earlier graduates are teaching in the schools, and one who understands may well believe that their instruction is Frost flavored. The power of good teaching will not fade with its own generation. The metaphor serves well which affirms that Norman Frost will remain as one of Peabody's finer pillars.

Count Leopold Berchtold: Eighteenth Century Educational Travel Counselor

STEWART FRASER
Peabody College

In this year, when over sixty thousand foreign students have journeyed from all over the world to study in the United States, and when over a million Americans will spend their summer overseas, it is interesting, from the historical point of view, to note an encyclopaedic eighteenth century work designed to aid in the education of would-be travellers. It has for its title the lengthy and self explanatory inscription:

“Essay to direct and extend the Inquiries of Patriotic Travellers; with further Observations on the Means of preserving the Life Wealth and Property of the inexperienced in their Journeys by Land and Sea.

A Series of Questions interesting to Society and Humanity necessary to be proposed for Solution to Men of all Ranks and Employments, and of all Nations and Governments comprising the most serious Points relative to the Objects of all Travels.”
London, 1789.

The author, Count Leopold Berchtold, was a wealthy German philanthropist, man of letters, and traveller. He used his considerable private fortune in establishing hospitals, schools and other charitable institutions, and joined, with other humanists throughout Europe, to improve the lot of the indigent, poor, and destitute. Berchtold was reported to have been fluent in eight languages and to have explored extensively the major continents of the world. In his travels he found it impossible to resist the temptation to compare and contrast the situation of different peoples as he saw them. Accordingly his interest lay in the

amelioration of the harsh political, social and economic conditions which he found in many of the countries he visited.

Berchtold's two volume work embodied the practical experiences of a lifetime of voyaging and was designed to assist the intellectually curious traveller make the most of his sojourn in foreign parts. It was also designed to encourage the spread of beneficial inventions, theories, and practices from one country to another, and to call attention to the chaotic educational conditions which existed in many principalities and states. Berchtold's *Essay* consists, in its First Volume, of a general methodological introduction for the traveller, followed by a four hundred page questionnaire on topics as diverse as "Police" and "Women"; however a vast number are devoted entirely to educational subjects of a nature that would be posed today by a foreign student or travelling professor. The Second Volume, nearly as lengthy as the first, consists of a comprehensive and detailed bibliography, neatly indexed by towns and countries, to aid the would be voyageur undertake preliminary reading so as to ask intelligent questions during his travels.

Regarding the study of foreign education, Count Berchtold notes:

"Education has such a powerful influence upon all our actions, that it may be looked upon as the spring of the happiness or misery of man in particular, and society at large; it will invite the attention of a traveller to inquire into the different methods of forming the bodies of children with powers of vigor and activity, and improving their hearts and understanding.

Besides a great many useful observations that may be made, by studying national education; and to apply it to the benefit of our own native country, it will be found an easier matter to judge with some degree of certainty of the national character, because men in general adopt that character and manner which education and habit have forcibly impressed on them."¹

On the international dissemination of knowledge he recommends:

"When a traveller inspects a library, he should not neglect asking, whether it contains manuscripts that have never yet been ushered into the world, what their titles are and whether it is to be supposed that they might be of any particular utility to mankind if published."²

¹ Berchtold, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

² *Ibid.*, p. 41.

Leopold Berchtold's *Essay* was widely known throughout Europe in both its English and French versions and was a standard travelling companion for those embarking on the "grand tour of the continent" or completing their formal studies in education. Today for those interested in the history of international and comparative education this work has a special and unusual significance for it provided the basis, in part, for the first text on the theory and practice of comparative education written in 1816 by Marc Antoine Jullien de Paris. The Chevalier Jullien, regarded by many as the "father of comparative education," acknowledges that Berchtold's work provided several of the questions he incorporated in his revolutionary work. "*Plan and Preliminary Views for a Work on Comparative Education . . . And Series of Questions destined to furnish material for Comparative Observation Tables. . .*"¹ In fact Berchtold may perhaps be more properly referred to as the "grandfather of international education" through the contributions to educational enquiry contained in his penetrating *Essay*. He, like Jullien, believed in the comparative methodology in education and in turn refers to a mid-eighteenth century work.

"General Rules: To Judge of the Comparative Poverty or Riches of a Town or Country, in Passing through it; contained in Dr. Tucker, Dean of Gloucester's Instruction for Travellers, published in the Year 1757."²

Thus continues the "regression trail" of identifying the various scholars, travellers, educators and statesmen who have influenced or commented upon international education down through history. Berchtold becomes one of a procession of men, such as Comenius, Kant, Cousin, Arnold, and Sadler, all better known than he, who have left their contributions for universalizing education. The questions of Berchtold presented below, indicate the advanced nature of his thinking and suggest a strong similarity with the educational enquiries being conducted today by international bureaux and institutes of education.³

¹ Jullien's *Esquisse d'un Ouvrage Sur l'Education Comparée et Series de Questions sur L'Education*. Commenced publication in 1816 in Swiss and French literary journals, then appeared as a pamphlet 1817. It is regarded as a datum point in the schematic study of international and comparative education.

² Berchtold, *op. cit.*

³ A sample only is presented of the questions, and the headings shown below have been adapted from the original text.

SELECTED QUESTIONS ON EDUCATION

Education of the Peasantry

1. How far are the education and government calculated to make the inhabitants more or less vicious? and more or less virtuous than other nations? and what seems to contribute greatly towards the propagation of the national virtues and vices?
2. What measures does the government take for the instruction of the peasant in agriculture? feeding of cattle, etc., etc.
3. In what manner are new discoveries in agriculture in general made known to the peasants? and how are they excited to introduce them?
4. Is there a public school erected for farriery? and of the general treatment of cattle? and the peasant taught how to prevent, and cure diseases incidental thereto?
5. In what place is this school established? and what is remarkable concerning it?

Agricultural Education

1. Is the theory and practice of agriculture publicly taught in the universities? or colleges? in what places of the country?
2. What plan is followed in teaching the theoretical part of it? what plan for the practical part?
3. What kind of people are chosen to be the teachers? what is the reward of the professorship?
4. How many years does the course of that study last?

Manufacturing Education

1. In what manner are children brought up to manufactures? instructed in drawing? mechanics? chemistry? and what is particularly remarkable in this plan of education applicable to other countries?
2. Is it not usual for some manufacturers and artificers to travel after their apprenticeship, in order to improve themselves by examining the manners of working, and taste of other nations? what countries do they chiefly visit? and how long lasts their absence?

Health Education

1. Is there a college of health established in the capital? does it prescribe wise regulations for preserving the lives and health of the inhabitants, and inquire after foreign physical institutions applicable to the country?
2. Which are the most useful regulations made by the said college? Which of them are still little known in foreign countries, though applicable to them?

General Education

1. To what age do the children in cities commonly remain under the care of women? and what is observed of those children, who, at an earlier period than usual, have been committed to the care of men?
2. By what kind of exercise do children acquire agility? and are they taught to make equal use of both hands?
3. How are children taught to be docile, respectful and obedient to their parents, and superiors, and to love them? does severity or entreaty operate most in these respects?
4. How are children corrected who betray a ferocity in their character, who take delight in killing or wounding helpless animals, who destroy things they know to be valuable to others? what means are used to suppress their anger, without violence?
5. Are children excited against certain nations? people of other persuasions? of certain callings? or is universal benevolence to man and beast inculcated to them, and how?
6. What particular care do parents take to render children as tender-hearted as may be? do they shew them frequently unfortunate victims of the injustice of man, or of the caprice of fortune, and diseased in hospitals, indigent parents of a numerous family, workmen sinking under too heavy burdens, innocence labouring under oppression, merit persecuted and despised, and infirm, unprovided, and abandoned old age?
7. At what age are children commonly instructed in reading, writing, and casting accounts? and what method is thought to be the most proper for it?

8. Is swimming, leaping, foot-racing, scaling, wrestling, and other gymnasticks much in use among common people, as well as among gentlemen? or which mostly neglected by each class?

Private and Public Education

1. What is the most adapted to improve in all respects, public or private education? What education is the most expensive, the private, or the public? and what may a young gentleman's tuition cost annually, on an average, in the private? and public method?
2. What is remarkable concerning public education in former times, and in what does the modern system chiefly differ from the ancient?
3. Do the professors of public schools generally possess the necessary qualifications? Are the public professorships disposed of in favour of the most qualified candidates, or are those places got by favour, or patronage?
4. Is any attention paid to the good character of the candidate, and is he obliged to give a specimen of his ability for teaching before he is initiated into that capacity? Can public professors be discharged? or are their places for life?

University Education

1. How many universities are there in this country? and in what places? in what year? and by whom have they been founded? and how are they supported?
2. How many students are there in each university? are they mostly gentlemen? or are there foundations for poor children among them? and is their number fixed? and how?
3. By whom are the universities governed? what jurisdiction? and privileges have they?
4. What faculties? and arts? and sciences, are usually taught in each university? by how many professors? How many years, or months, is each faculty? art? or science, taught at the university?
5. Which faculty? art? or science, is best taught at each university? and which the most neglected?
6. What attention is paid at the universities to the language of the country? the improvement of the grammar? and epistolary style?

7. In which of the dead and oriental languages are the students instructed at the universities? during how many years? Which of the living languages are taught at the universities? and what method is looked upon as the most proper for learning them the soonest?
8. At what age are young people commonly sent to the universities? and to what age do they usually remain there?
9. Is the instruction gratis? or what are the fees for each faculty? art? or science?
10. Do the students live in private houses, or in colleges? and how are they maintained in them?
11. What remarkable regulations are there for saving time in teaching the different branches of useful education and knowledge? and for prohibiting those studies which are of no utility, and consequently hurtful, by diverting young minds from more profitable pursuits?
12. Is care taken for the improvement of the scholar's heart, and for forming virtuous citizens as well as learned men?

Education of Women

1. At what age are girls commonly instructed in reading, writing, and the first principles of arithmetic? and is this kind of knowledge pretty general among the lower class of people?
2. What arts and sciences are commonly studied by ladies? and what method is used in teaching them?
3. How is the moral character of females formed? and how are the virtues and accomplishments that may be expected in a good wife inculcated?
4. Do the mothers commonly leave their daughters in total ignorance of the dangers by which they are continually surrounded? or what care is taken to guard them betimes against the insidious practices of artful and vicious men?
5. How are young girls accustomed to be more courageous than the fair sex commonly are, that they might not easily be frightened by an accident, or the sight of a maimed, or disfigured person? rats, mice, &c.?
6. Is it also usual in this country to shew young girls hospitals of

women afflicted with venereal diseases? and to paint to them the misery of such a state, in order to inspire their minds at once with an eternal horror and detestation of the causes of those dreadful evils?

7. Are young ladies of quality commonly brought up in their families? or in boarding-schools? in the capital? or in what parts of their native country? or in what places abroad?
8. What character is generally given to ladies who have had a domestic education? and what character to those that have been brought up in boarding-schools?

* * * * *

While the questions on education, posed above, represent only a small fraction of the total questionnaire found in Berchtold's *Essay*, they are indicative of the enlightened line of enquiry he suggested for the international exchange of ideas and the directing of traveller's enquiries along intelligent systematic paths. This eighteenth century work suggests lines of research in international education which are germane to the statistical, analytical and descriptive investigations undertaken today.

Berchtold's work is at best a curiosity, an artifact in the history of international education. However in its time it provided interesting procedures for ensuring that the educational benefits of foreign travel could be more useful to the voyager and other nations.

Theme Revision? Who Needs It?

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A frequently accepted "truth" among English teachers is that the key to polished writing is revision. Students are incessantly urged to revise their themes before they hand them in and are often required to revise their graded themes and resubmit them before they are given a grade for a writing assignment. Because I am innately skeptical, I set out some three years ago to test the hypothesis that all students benefit from revising what they have written.

My experiment took place over a period of four consecutive semesters in a total of twelve sections of freshman and subfreshman composition courses. My findings are based on a sampling of 544 papers submitted by these groups during the first two weeks of the semesters involved.

During the first week of each term I asked my students to write a paragraph of about a hundred words on an assigned topic dealing with something concrete. Among the topics were some of the following: "Describe an item of clothing which you have recently bought"; "Describe a common postage stamp"; "How do *you* most often use the comma?"; "Tell why you have trouble spelling some particular word." The class was allowed fifteen minutes in which to compose the paragraph. Then I announced that the paragraph was to be rewritten during the next ten minutes. The meaning was to be maintained, but the students were told to strengthen the original paragraph in whatever ways they could, grammatically or rhetorically. When they had completed this revision, I asked the students to rewrite their paragraphs yet another time, making them as strong and polished as possible. I then collected all three versions of the paragraph and graded the papers as analytically as I could, making a careful tabulation of the results.

The following week I repeated this exercise in each group, but this time had the students write on topics which were less concrete than those of the preceding week. Some of the following topics are represen-

tative: “Describe white”; “How does the air feel?”; “What is depth?”; “How does the morning sound?” Each student was again called upon to make two revisions, and the papers were again graded analytically. The results were tabulated on a chart similar to the one below.

Student's Name	Concrete Topic			Abstract Topic		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Doe, John	C	A	B	A	C	B

For purposes of tabulation, the letter grades above were used to indicate which version of the paragraph was best (A), which was second best (B), and which was weakest (C). The student received a single letter grade on his paper, within which the strongest paragraph had been checked and the weakest had been marked with an “X”.

Under the heading “Concrete topics,” 279 papers were tabulated, while under the heading “Abstract topics,” 265 papers were tabulated. The tabulation revealed the following:

	Concrete Topics (Total Number: 279)			Abstract Topics (Total Number: 265)		
	Original Paragraph	First Revision	Second Revision	Original Paragraph	First Revision	Second Revision
A (Best)	44	121	114	87	132	46
B (2nd Best)	98	89	92	128	19	118
C (Weakest)	137	69	73	50	114	101

The results of this tabulation indicate the following:

1. Writing which deals with concrete topics is more likely to benefit from revision than writing which deals with abstract topics.
2. A second revision of work which has not been graded or criticized is often less fruitful than the first revision, particularly when the topic is abstract, thereby demanding an imaginative presentation.
3. It is unwise to urge *every* student to revise everything that he writes before handing it in.
4. Teachers must endeavor to diagnose writing problems on an individual basis, for each student reacts differently to the writing

experience and must be encouraged to find the writing technique which best suits his need.

After I had handed back both sets of papers to my students, I told them that they should be guided by the results in determining how extensively to revise their future writing assignments. If the second revision on both papers was strongest, I urged them to revise their work extensively before handing it in. If, however, the second revision was the weakest, they should revise their papers sparingly, if at all.

In tabulating my results, I was especially interested in the 84 papers (30 from the group writing on concrete topics, 54 from the group writing on abstract topics) which were strongest in the original paragraph and weakest in the second revision. In all but two cases, the second revision was considerably longer than the original paragraph. There was a marked increase in punctuation errors, especially in comma and semicolon errors. There had been a total of 109 spelling errors in the 87 original paragraphs, but this number increased to 237 by the second revision. The original paragraphs contained eleven instances of fused sentence, comma splice, and sentence fragment and this number dropped to eight in the second revision.

In only five cases did students change sentence order in the second revision, and in only eight cases did they combine two or more short sentences into one long sentence. The second revision contained more qualification and explanation than did the original paragraphs, but these modifications often vitiated the effect of what the student had originally said.

There was a marked attempt in the second revision to replace short simple words with more complicated ones, often with the result that the connotation of the less common word was inappropriate to the context. The number of diction errors increased from 38 in the original paragraphs to 107 in the second revisions.

A careful analysis of the 544 papers in this study revealed to me that the students' interpretation of the word *revision* is quite limited. For many students, revision is merely proofreading. To all but a handful of the students involved in this study, revision obviously had little to do with structural improvement or with improvement of content. Rather, it had to do with tightening up punctuation, checking spelling

and diction, and lengthening paragraphs, often for the single purpose of adding to the wordcount, and frequently with the result of making them totally ineffective. In the 544 papers, 486 second revisions were longer than the original paragraphs, 46 were within 15 words of the original length, and 12 were notably shorter.

I use the exercise described here to diagnose student writing problems at the beginning of each term. I also use the two exercises as a starting point for class work in how to revise effectively. I suggest to students that structural revision and revision of content always be given top priority, for writing must be cohesive and understandable if it is to have meaning. When the student has succeeded in presenting his material clearly and effectively, he can turn to the simpler matter of catching mechanical and grammatical weaknesses.

To reply to the title of this article, "Theme Revision? Who Needs It?", I would say that most students need it in one form or another. However, the extent to which students should revise is clearly an individual matter and must be so treated. The teacher must diagnose the students' individual writing problems as effectively as he is able. He must also be highly specific in telling his students what revision is and in what significant respects it differs from proofreading. Revision must be taught; it cannot be done effectively by a student who is merely told to revise a given piece of writing. The student must learn very early that revision is more than rewriting and far more than patchwork. At its best, revision is a reworking of one's writing to the point that it communicates one's ideas as clearly, as forcefully, as directly, and as explicitly as possible.

Why Are Elementary School Libraries So Important?

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Frequently, in the course of my work, I meet teachers and administrators who doubt the need for elementary school librarians. Why, they ask, does an elementary school need a librarian? Wouldn't a clerk be just as well? Isn't a librarian in an elementary school a luxury?

Over and over again I hear these questions. They point, it seems to me, to a misunderstanding of the purpose and function of the elementary school librarian. And always in the background, there is the implication that elementary children are too young for a librarian—that they wouldn't know how to use a librarian if they had one.

Now no one questions the need for the fourth grade teacher or the sixth grade teacher. No one, at least no one I have met, considers the fourth grade teacher a luxury. Why, then, is there so often a doubt about the need for a librarian, and why is the librarian oftentimes so considered?

And why do we need librarians in the elementary school? One very important reason, which is often overlooked, is this. If students don't learn how to use the library while they are in elementary school, if they don't master the basic library skills then, they may never get this training. Since many more junior high schools and high schools have libraries and librarians than do elementary schools, this may sound like a paradox.

But it isn't. Junior high schools and high schools are usually much larger than elementary schools. Often a junior high school, with 1400 to 2000 students, will have only one librarian. If the librarian tries to do any teaching of library skills and the use of the library, he will probably have to limit his efforts to seventh graders.

In a junior high school of the size we are considering here, there

will be from seventeen to twenty classes of seventh graders. If the librarian tries to meet each class, let us say all the seventh grade English classes, three to five times, this means sixty to one hundred teaching hours for the librarian. Besides his work with seventh graders, of course, the librarian must also work with eighth and ninth grade classes, and he must carry on all the routine work of ordering, cataloging, classifying, and shelving books.

Overwhelmed by sheer numbers, the junior high school librarian has little chance of offering individualized instruction in the use of the library. He is not able to reach many students when they are ready or when they need to know how to use the card catalog, for example. Some students will learn the basic library skills on their own. But many, without assistance from the librarian, will not.

At the high school level, as far as individualized instruction in library skills is concerned, the situation is even worse. There we often find one or two librarians serving three thousand students. Many teachers never bring their classes to the library. Others do not make assignments which would require the use of the library. Students, especially those in vocational courses, seldom use the library.

By now it is too late to help all students. The librarian's work is limited to those students who do use the library, and many of them already know how to use it. If a student has not acquired the basic library skills by the time he gets to high school, there is only a slight chance that he will learn them then.

So much of the burden for training students in the use of the library must fall on the elementary school librarian. Students who do not have a chance to acquire this training in the elementary school, may never get it. Or if they do get it in junior high school or high school, they will always be behind those who received it in elementary school. If they do not receive this training until they reach secondary school, valuable time has been lost.

This is why it is so important for elementary schools to have libraries and qualified librarians.

There are, of course, many other reasons why elementary school libraries are important. For one thing, there is a trend at present, and it will probably continue, to push subjects down the educational ladder. Calculus, for example, which used to be taught only in college, is now

being offered in many high schools. Algebra and foreign languages, which were once given only in the high school, are now regular courses in many junior high schools. And certain aspects of mathematics and the introduction to foreign languages have already been moved from the junior high school into the elementary school.

This movement to push subjects down and to begin the study of other subjects sooner, is part of our modern culture. There is more to know now than ever before. The good citizen needs to know more, to get a job, to take part in community activities, or to meet the problems of a fast changing society. Unless the period for training is lengthened, there is no way to accomplish all this, other than by crowding more into the time which is now allowed.

To learn more during his time in school, the student must have access to as much information as can be made available. This means that, more than ever before, he needs books and magazines, films and filmstrips, pictures and recordings. Without these sources of information, which should all be available in the school library, he can not hope to learn the many things he will need to know after he leaves school.

As these sources of information grow in importance, students, and teachers, will have to become skillful in using them. And this skill can best be acquired in the library, by following a well-developed plan of instruction.

Our ever growing knowledge will heighten the importance of books and magazines, of films and recordings, as learning tools. A pupil's success, in school and after he leaves school, will depend a great deal on his ability to locate and use these materials. So he should develop the skill to use them as early as possible. Only a librarian, with a thorough knowledge of books and magazines, of films and recordings, can give him the training he will need.

There is yet another reason why elementary school libraries, and librarians, are so important. We know how a good teacher can influence our lives. A life long interest in science or literature or art can be kindled by an inspired, and inspiring, teacher.

This is equally true of a good librarian. A creative librarian can instil a love of books and reading which will last a lifetime. By teaching students how to use the library, she can get them off to a good start.

With her help, students will not develop a fear of the library or a dislike of books. When faced with a problem, they will naturally think of the library as a source of information to help them.

By creating the proper atmosphere in the library, the librarian can do a great deal to help students develop a good attitude toward the library. Under her influence students will naturally think of the library as a place which can help them. They will automatically turn to it when they need information, or when they need help in locating information.

A recent survey revealed that very few people think of the library when they need specific information. This would not be true if they had learned to use a library in elementary school. The librarian who shows children how the library can help them find the information they need, will have an influence on them for the rest of their lives.

The habit of using a library is like any other habit. It must be developed early if it is going to have a lasting effect. Just as children acquire the rudiments of reading and writing and spelling and arithmetic in the elementary school, so should they learn the fundamentals of using a library. Once they have learned this, it will remain with them always.

The role of the elementary school library in providing for individual differences is extremely important. The importance of providing for individual differences is now fairly well accepted by almost everyone. The teacher does as much as she can to provide for individual differences in the classroom, but she can't do everything. The library alone has adequate materials for slow learners and fast learners, for students with special interests and for students with no interests.

The library is the ideal place to bring together materials for learners of all abilities. Only in the library, for example, can students expect to find simple books on Mexico and advanced books on the Westward Movement. The library is the logical place for specialized materials for gifted students working on advanced projects. Yet it is also the place where the slow learner, or the student who is just starting his study of rocks or astronomy, can find material on his level.

The classroom, unless it is as well stocked as the library, simply can't do this job. On the other hand, this function, of supplying materials for students with varying abilities, is one of the chief purposes of the elementary school library.

Students with special needs and abilities can be guided to the library by the classroom teacher. Working together, the teacher and the librarian can help pupils who need to move faster or slower than other students. The teacher, who knows her children, and the librarian, who knows the materials which will help them, can cooperate in providing assistance which neither of them could give alone as well.

An elementary school library is like an essential ingredient in a well balanced diet. Teachers and principals often ask, "Do we really need a library and a librarian in the elementary school?" As they point out, many schools do not have a library, and they seem to survive.

It is the same with the protein or vitamins in our diet. There are people who do not, or can not, get a proper diet. As we know, they survive, but how much better they would survive if they had all the proper foods. And so it is with a school library. An elementary school can survive without one, but how much better a school it would be if it had a library.

Economics and the School Teacher

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When one considers what college economics students should have learned in high school,—*learned*, as distinct from what may or may not be *taught*—what comes first to mind are two things which those of us who are university teachers spend an inordinate amount of time trying to get students to “unlearn.” The first of these mistaken but tenaciously held notions is that economics is or ought to be the study of business administration and investment counseling (or what might be more appropriately phrased as “how to succeed in business by *really* trying”). Economics is a social science concerned with such problems as the use and allocation of resources, and the growth, stability, and distribution of economic wellbeing. It is just about as useful for those who wish to “make money” as the study of history is for those who would like to “make history.”

This tendency to identify economics as the study of the practical arts of business is perhaps one source of a second misapprehension from which beginning economics students suffer—namely, that the principles of economics are or ought to be simply a codification of time-hallowed propositions derived from the dogmas of a private enterprise philosophy and generally in accord with ordinary “common sense.” But if one may slightly paraphrase Alfred North Whitehead in his *Essays in Science and Philosophy*, “. . . dogmatic common-sense is death to intellectual adventure.” And though the study of modern economics in college does not (contrary to the belief of certain circles) involve indoctrination along the lines of any particular philosophy, it does require a willingness to examine critically the assumptions upon which rest many so-called “common sense” notions of how the economy operates or ought to operate. Such an undogmatic investigation almost invariably results in making nonsense out of at least part of what was previously accepted as eminently sensible. Any student unable to participate in

such a reorientation of his thought processes will find himself at a considerable disadvantage.

But what specific steps might be taken in the high schools and the home to improve a student's preparation for the study of economics? First, more important than incorporating the subject matter of economics into high school programs is the development of certain basic intellectual skills such as the ability to make distinctions, to understand and deal in abstractions, to recognize a variety of fundamental logical and mathematical relationships, and above all, perhaps, to write expository prose clearly and carefully. Most, if not all, college preparatory programs are now intended to develop these basic skills. Unfortunately, in too many cases it appears that students have great difficulty in applying what they have been taught to the analysis of economic problems. In part this is a result of a compartmentalization in the educational process connected with an overemphasis on *courses*. Few entering college students realize that they should have been learning English in their math classes, or that by applying their knowledge of mathematics in their history courses, where statistical tables can be used to great advantage, as they are in the Yale Select Problems in History, they could have increased their understanding of both mathematics and history.

The second suggestion, therefore, is that schools might make greater efforts not only to demonstrate the importance of relating the subject matter of different courses but also to foster the enlightenment that comes from the application of techniques learned in one connection to problems encountered in an entirely different context. The introduction into college preparatory curricula of separate courses or even separate sections of existing courses on the specific subject matter of economics is probably not necessary and may even be detrimental. There exist many opportunities within the structure of existing courses in English, history, mathematics, civics or general social sciences and even in the physical sciences to incorporate both descriptive material on economic institutions and an introduction to certain fundamental analytic concepts important to an understanding of how these institutions operate. Effective exploitation of these opportunities would provide a much more meaningful educational experience for prospective college students than adding an additional course subject in the some-

what specialized area of economics.

A third and final proposition follows directly from this. It is that the economic education of high school teachers—no matter what subject they teach—is much more important and constitutes a much greater problem than the economic education of students preparing for college. In general the level of economic education encountered among secondary school teachers, with few exceptions, is dismally low—a characteristic which they share with the population at large. In such a situation to add an economics course to an already crowded curricula and to undertake the specialized training of particular teachers in order to qualify them to conduct such courses would be a waste of resources. It should be possible instead to get a large proportion of secondary school teachers to recognize the importance of increasing their understanding of economic problems and to put that increased understanding to good use in their classes whatever the subject.

Modern European and American history cannot be properly taught by someone unfamiliar with the study of economics. Mathematics instructors as well could make their subject both more interesting and more valuable to their students by a judicious selection of particular examples of the application of mathematical principles to problems in economics and the other social sciences. But if there is one single improvement that must be demanded, it is an increase in the ability of students to read descriptive and analytical material with care and understanding and to express their ideas in writing with clarity and precision. College teachers do not presume to prescribe how to teach high school students to read and write, but the emphasis in high school English courses on the persuasive and esthetic aspects of literature and language may have the result that too little attention is given to the problem of communicating information and ideas as lucidly, unambiguously and meaningfully as possible. Would it not be possible as an exercise in the use of language to explore with students some of the analytic prose of the great economist and historians—many of whom have been masters of English style? And if greater emphasis on care and precision in the use of words to communicate ideas had the incidental effect of improving students' grammar, punctuation, and spelling, university teachers well could feel that the millenium had arrived, or, at least, was "just around the corner."

An Experiment with CCTV in Teacher Education

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Technology and its impact upon education is readily evident in the development and expansion of educational television. Not only is a regional airborne television project operational but also in existence are VHF educational TV programs and closed circuit programs in elementary and secondary schools and institutions of higher learning.

Several investigators¹ have explored the possibilities of CCTV in teacher education. They have been duly impressed with the great value and potential of this newer teaching-learning media.

With each passing day the cry is being heard to intensify and expand educational television. The New York State legislature in 1961 appropriated \$50,000 to the state education department for the development of "a comprehensive plan for the use of television in higher learning in all parts of the state."² Consultant for the N.Y. project, Dr. Glenn Starlin, suggested the following possible use for CCTV: "Practice teachers could observe classroom procedures from a TV viewing room, enabling them to discuss problems without interfering with the class."³

¹ Nardelli, Robert R., "CCTV: Campus Lab for Teacher Education," *Educational Screen and Audiovisual Guide*, 39:72-75, February, 1960.

Rench, Hazel S., "Observing Teaching Via Closed-Circuit Television," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, 12:39-42, March, 1961.

The Board of Higher Education, The City of New York, "Closed Circuit Television in the Hunter College Program of Teacher Education," The Board, New York City, 1961 (?), 14 pp.

² "Fredonia College Officials Hear of Practical Aspects of Educational Television," *Dunkirk Evening Observer*, January 18, 1962, p. 2.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

Background of the Problem

In March, 1961, almost a year prior to the above proposal, an experiment was conducted with CCTV in teacher education at the State University of New York College of Education at Fredonia.

The efforts of the college's audio-visual director, a fifth grade campus school teacher, and a college professor of elementary education were coordinated in this experiment.

During the course of the experiment 18 junior-year elementary education students enrolled in a social studies methods course observed the learnings of 25 fifth graders.

The equipment used consisted of a fixed-focus camera, a classroom monitoring TV set, a sound cable strung out of the elementary classroom window to a viewing room supplied with a 21" receiving set. The light source was derived from the regularly used classroom fluorescent tubes and natural lighting.

Statement of the Problem

The problem was concerned with the effectiveness of observation of instruction via CCTV. In their theory work the students learned that the objectives of social studies instruction were thought out as the development of: (1) understandings, i.e., concepts and generalizations; (2) skills; (3) attitudes; and (4) appreciations.

The aim of the TV observation was to learn to what extent those four above objectives were being met in a selected fifth grade class. A secondary aim of the experiment was to learn about the nature and extent of televiewing problems.

Procedure

In consultation with the social studies methods course professor, the fifth grade campus school teacher agreed to prepare a lesson plan-guide sheet to be utilized by the student observers just prior to and during the observation. The plan for the class work of 50 minutes duration was solely the work of the campus school teacher.

In order to establish proper research conditions and to test the validity of the experiment, the college students were divided into two major groups: (1) control (classroom observers) and (2) experimental (TV viewers). The control group consisted of four classroom observers who used the prepared lesson plan-guide sheet and were in the classroom during the telecast. The experimental group consisted of 14 TV viewers. Section A of six TV viewers used the lesson plan-guide sheet just prior to and during the observation. Section B of eight TV viewers were without lesson plan-guide sheets.

During the telecast all 18 observers, in both control and experimental groups, were to record: (1) the understandings (generalizations) they formulated which children could also supposedly formulate, (2) the skills children developed; (3) the attitudes children formed, and (4) the pupil appreciations which grew out of the lesson on agriculture and manufacturing in the modern South.

After the telecast all observers were to record any problem or problems which were evident or encountered during the televising.

Results

As shown in Table 1, the number of generalizations formulated by the classroom observers who used the lesson plan-guide sheet average a total of 5. Those TV viewers using the lesson plan-guide sheets, on the average, formulated 4+ generalizations. Those TV viewers without the lesson plan-guide sheet, on the average, formulated 2.5 generalizations.

As is also evident from Table 1, the TV viewers using the lesson plan-guide sheet formulated, on the average, more similar kinds of generalizations than did either of the two other groups.

As shown in Table 2 the control group, i.e., the classroom observers with lesson plan-guide sheets recorded, on the average, 4.3 skills being developed by the pupils. In the experimental group those TV viewers using the lesson plan-guide sheet recorded, on the average, a total of 3.8 skills being developed by the pupils. Section B of the experimental group, i.e., those TV viewers without guide sheets, recorded, on the average, a total of 3.0 skills being developed by the pupils.

TABLE 1. NATURE AND NUMBER OF GENERALIZATIONS
FORMULATED BY THE CONTROL AND
EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Generalizations formulated	Control group	Experimental group	
		Using guide sheet	Without guide sheet
Modern South has changed since 1800	3	5	4
Machines replaced slaves in the South	3	1	
South produces cotton, rice, tobacco, tomatoes, citrus fruits	2	4	2
South has many textile mills	2	1	
Heavy and light industry are different	2		2
South has year-round agriculture	1		
Plants utilize rivers for transportation and water power	1	4	2
Cotton has continued as a main crop for several reasons	1	1	1
Iron and steel deposits are found in the Appalachians	1	1	
Birmingham is a steel center	1	1	
Cotton manufacture has changed since Civil War	1		
Climate led to growing of fruits and vegetables	1		4
Truck farming means raising of garden crops	1		
A time difference exists between the old and modern South		2	
North and south are directions		1	
Regions of U.S. are different		1	
Cotton gin increased production		1	
Society changes as time advances		1	
Products manufactured are dependent upon natural resources		1	3
Slavery does not exist in South today			2
Average	5	4.2	2.5

TABLE 2. TYPE AND NUMBER OF SKILLS DEVELOPED BY THE PUPILS AS VIEWED BY THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Type of skill developed	Control group	Experimental group	
		Using guide sheet	Without guide sheet
Oral reporting	4	6	6
Skimming for details	4	4	4
Group cooperation	2	3	4
Organizing relevant facts.	2	2	2
Map skills	2		
Research	1	2	4
Drawing conclusions	1	1	
Using pictures in reference books	1		
Selecting data		2	1
Reading for understanding		1	
Looking up information		2	1
Discussion			2
Average	4.3	3.8	3.0

The data revealed that, for all general purposes, none of the observers identified any significant pupil development of attitudes, favorable or unfavorable, toward the peoples, past or present, of the American South.

The data also revealed that, for all general purposes, none of the observers identified any significant pupil development of appreciations for the South and its peoples, past and present.

As indicated in Table 3, the central problem encountered in the use of closed circuit television in this experiment was the matter of sound. It was that pupils lacked voice volume and that noises in the acoustically-unprepared classroom became exaggerated. Other operational problems were: (1) a visually inadequate view of detail in the classroom equipment; (2) a lack of close-up of the individual pupils; and (3) a limited view of the class. The number and kinds of problems were significantly higher for both groups of TV viewers than for the classroom observers.

TABLE 3. PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED BY STUDENTS DURING THE PERIOD OF OBSERVING AND TELEVIEWING

Nature of the problem	Control group	Experimental group	
		Using guide sheet	Without guide sheet
Pupils didn't speak loud enough	2	4	7
Chalkboard, map, and bulletin board were not visible		3	1
Noises seemed exaggerated			3
Pupils' speech difficult to understand		2	1
Lacked close-up view of pupils' reactions and expressions		1	2
View of entire class was impossible		1	1
Pupils weren't facing camera	1		
Pupils walked in front of camera	1		
Some pupils became "ham" actors	1		
Pupils became conscious of the TV camera		1	
Single, stationary-positioned TV camera made it difficult to follow the lesson		1	
Picture lacked sharpness			1
Tube glare was dependent upon position of TV viewer			1
Average	1.5	2.2	2.1

Conclusions

1. As to the nature and extent of the generalizations formulated, guided televiewing was almost as effective as actual guided classroom observation.

2. TV viewers using the lesson plan-guide sheet were almost twice as effective in formulating generalizations as were those TV observers without the lesson plan-guide sheet.

3. In regard to pupil skills being developed as viewed by both control and experimental groups, the TV viewers using the lesson plan-guide sheet were almost as effective as the classroom observers with the lesson plan-guide sheet.

4. TV viewers using the lesson plan-guide sheet were more effective

in viewing the development of pupil skills than were those TV viewers without the lesson plan-guide sheet.

5. For all general purposes, neither the control (classroom observers) nor the experimental group (TV viewers) was able to identify any development of attitudes and/or appreciations by the pupils. This may be due to the subtle nature of those two objectives.

6. The experimental group (TV viewers), on the average, encountered more viewing problems both in number and nature than did the control group (classroom observers).

7. Most of the CCTV production problems can be alleviated or eliminated through the (1) utilization of additional and better technically-developed equipment; (2) improvement of the classroom physical environment; and (3) the employment of needed technical personnel.

Recommendations

It is recommended that:

1. Televiewing to be effectively used in "methods" courses in teacher education be conducted on a guided basis using prepared guide sheets.

2. Guided televiewing be expanded and improved upon in teacher education with eventual, but not complete, replacement of actual classroom observation.

3. Similar experiments utilizing a larger sample and ranging from kindergarten through grade 6 be conducted and evaluated.

4. A second control group of observers minus the lesson plan-guide sheet be introduced in further experimental set-ups.

5. Low voice volume be solved by use of a multi-microphone system.

6. A zoomar lens be used to provide adequate visibility of the chalkboard, map, bulletin board, and other small equipment.

7. Noise exaggeration be eliminated by acoustical treatment of the elementary classroom.

A Re-examination of Aspects of Unit Teaching in the Elementary School

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The problem of the organization of instruction has confronted teachers for as long as schools have been in existence. The unit approach to teaching, particularly in the areas of social studies and science, has had considerable educational thought and practice during the past several years. From this experience with the unit of method has come somewhat wide acceptance of its underlying theory and procedure, resulting in more and more teachers incorporating this pattern in their own teaching plans. However, in so doing, some aspects of unit teaching have become distorted and misunderstood perhaps, bringing about a need for re-examination of particular ideas and practices.

Essentially a unit of instruction, as usually defined, is a collection and classification of various ideas to be used in teaching particular topics under consideration. It is felt that unit teaching can provide opportunity for children to develop modes of behavior consistent with democratic values; to think critically and creatively toward solving problems; and to make subject matters as meaningful and functional as possible. (This is not to imply that such goals may be reached with only one particular type of approach, for there is nothing inherent in other types of organizations that precludes fine teaching.)

An outline for a unit of work usually involves statements relative to parts such as these: selection of topic; overview, indicating nature and scope of the topic; objectives; introductory motivational activities; activities, which will be carried out during the work period; evaluation; and bibliography. Examination of these areas will follow this sequence.

Topic: Unnecessary as it would seem to be, it appears in order to say that the selection of the topics to be studied during a particular year or series of years is of some importance. This statement would

cast some doubt upon the "it isn't the topic that's important; it's the process" approach. This statement belongs in the same category as shop-worn clichés of "Teach the child; not the subject" and "Teach the child how to think; not what to think." As one must teach the child something and that to think one must think about something, so should the unit revolve about something that is significant enough to merit time and careful study. Traditional, important knowledge should be clearly evident. Time is too valuable for pupils to waste time on petty things in the classroom.

After the selection of the topic, the teacher's job is to inform himself about the topic through first hand experience and books; to tentatively organize the content of the unit; and tentatively plan pupil activities and teaching materials. He will want to check to see if it fulfills the needs of his class; it represents a unified experience; large blocks of time can be provided; and it is simple enough for the learners to grasp, yet as comprehensive as the ability of his learners will permit. Through each decision to be made, the primary thought should be logically: Does the central core of the unit have educational value?

Objectives: In formulating the objectives for the unit of work, the teacher should attempt to cause them to give clues as to what will be taught in the particular unit. The objectives should be as concrete and specific as possible, rather than a listing of all the possible objectives of education. Proximate objectives are called for to replace broad, gaudy objectives as rather commonly found. As a group, teachers have shown a proclivity for stating the aims of their instructional program in extremely general and sometimes high-flown terminology. Such statements are difficult to translate into implications for teaching procedures and evaluation. They may be necessary in suggesting the end products of instruction, but they cannot be considered sufficient in and of themselves for guiding a teacher through a unit of work. For example, how much help to the teacher, in either planning 'what to teach' or 'what to test', are objectives such as these, taken from units prepared by teachers: "To develop power to create and respond to the environment," "To integrate the whole life of the child within the group"; "To appreciate how our present everyday life has grown out of time and space"? These objectives do not help to

distinguish one subject from another. To be effective, objectives need to be unambiguously stated so that the learning and evaluative experiences may be obviously relevant to them.

Introduction and motivation: It is here that the questions that the pupils feel should be answered by their study are considered by the class and recorded. The teacher need not be hesitant of encouraging and suggesting questions which the pupils have not mentioned. Questions are then organized in a manner that will facilitate research by individuals, small groups, or the class. The problems or questions are indeed the heart of the unit. The identification of the problems is considered a functional part of the pupil's activities in the unit. One of the superior features of the problem method is felt to be that learning within it is more effective because pupils have an opportunity to participate actively in discovering and exploring that which is both important in understanding and interesting to them. The important role of problem raising must not be slighted in order to get to the more active stages of the unit too quickly. An important part of this period is the determination of the background information already possessed by the pupils and the provision of a good deal of background information for the pupils.

The solicitation of pupil activity in a unit does not signify that pupil interest is the sole basis for the selection of units or problems. It does mean, however, that the content of the unit taught should indicate how pupil interest and enthusiasm can be fostered for the study. The area of children's interests and needs wants to be explored at length since it permeates all aspects of a unit. Discussions most generally are slanted toward the interests rather than needs of children. If it can be safely assumed that the child should have the right to expect the school to teach him the things life demands, the needs of pupils arise to a more worthy position. Not all the immediate concerns of children may be suitable for extensive study. Some are not important enough in terms of concepts involved; some ages do not have the equipment to understand or investigate certain concepts. Should teachers abandon a preplanned program in favor of one that focuses exclusively on the study of pupil-initiated interest problems, many important areas of knowledge may be neglected. Educational programs based solely upon

children's interest often have big gaps in basic knowledge; and important problems and processes may be neglected because children may not express an interest to study them. There are a number of areas of man's knowledge and experiences that should be studied by pupils whether or not they themselves initiate the study through expressions of spontaneous interest. This isn't to imply that the program shouldn't allow for explanation of problems which children's curiosity brings to the classroom, assuming they are worthy of investigation, but not all the questions children ask should become problems for study by the entire class unless the concepts are significant and appropriate for the age level.

All this is to say that interests need to be properly related to children's needs in the unit program. Children must be educated to be competent to handle the needs that are evident. Some of these needs may not be so very immediate to the child, offering no escape from deferred values. Part of pupil learning may be to put aside present pleasures for delayed benefits. Furthermore, the most important thing one can know about interests is that they are learned. Schools should strive to see that pupils learn the correct interests. Waiting for the interests of children or utilizing only present interests is a betrayal of pupils' faith in adults. How would children know about certain things and to be interested or disinterested in them unless they have been exposed to them? The interests with which a child leaves school may be one of the best measure of a school's real achievement. Someone has put it this way: the interests that the child brings to school are our opportunity; the interests which he takes from our school are our responsibility. The morale of the school should strive to be such that pupils should want to be interested in their important, serious needs. If it is made clear to pupils what they are doing and why they are doing it, the development of interests becomes less a problem. In a situation where children can see a need, it should be possible to create an interest. The teacher's job, therefore, is to help children see the relationship of the tasks they are doing and their larger goal. The teacher aims for the pupil to accept the objectives of the study as their very own through seeing and feeling a need. This suggests that external motivation is not basically very effective. Intrinsic interests are of

much greater importance than interests gained through 'pressures' of one sort or another. Pupil participation; knowledge of progress on the study of a problem; use of authentic activities; teacher enthusiasm and amount of background knowledge application of the subject matter in functional situations—these are the basic incentives that help pupils become and maintain a worthy interest through a unit of work.

Needless to add, children often have needs and interests unrelated to the unit for which time must be provided in the daily schedule. Skill development will in all likelihood be necessary in certain subject areas apart from the unit.

Activities: Perhaps one of the more frequently violated principles in unit work is that any activity undertaken should contribute to the objectives of the unit and should have a real purpose. Another way of stating this is that activity for activity sake should be avoided. It is not to be assumed that just any activity has educational value. Activities cannot legitimately be used in a unit because they are fun, but only if and because they can help make learning more efficient and permanent.

Constructive activities have long been considered as one of the ways of bringing meaning to reading when the concepts are outside the child's range of experiences. Too often, however, the activities suggested have been of the artificial fanciful type, or so erroneous in nature that the child may only become more confused or actually acquire incorrect concepts. For example, construction of a farm with an authentic material may deteriorate into little more than low-grade putter. How much better would be taking a field trip, maintaining a small garden, or seeing a film. Is it educationally justifiable to have children spend time making something if it chiefly is to make a pretty display? Is there value to a pupil learning how a process was never really carried on? Many of the scenes of farms, circuses, and deserts frequently seen in classrooms do little in providing better understanding of the facts being developed, and only take up time that could be used in a better way. With present day crowded schedules it is more than ever important that the activities engaged in are authentic, worthwhile, and result in definite pupil learning. When used in their proper place, constructive activities can do much in combating verbalism and helping

to develop background upon which to base generalizations. Statements that would otherwise be empty, vague, or misconceived may take on a substantial degree of valid meaning. Of course constructive activities alone do not begin to assume the major role in the development of a problem. They can be regarded as aids to developing only some of the understandings in any unit. In short, they supplement rather than supplant other means of instruction.

Most units involve many types of learning activities. A list of such activities would certainly include: observation, experimentation, reading, discussion, listening to resource speakers, field trips, and visual aids. It may be worthy to note that resources which do not require reading should receive their fair share of use; yet it cannot be forgotten that reading is the single most important tool that elementary children have at their disposal for finding answers to questions.

Correlation for the mere sake of correlation is not the purpose for cutting across traditional subject-matter lines in a unit of work. In some cases correlation has been carried too far with ludicrous results: children visit a fire station as part of the unit, sing songs about fireman in music period, do fireman rhythm in physical education period. Various subjects are included properly only because they make a contribution to the children's investigations and understanding, not because the unit is a way of teaching them. Some good advice at this point is to bring to the problem the factors that belong; discard those that don't belong. Absurdities will usually result if correlation is forced. A balanced, harmonious unit is the desired goal. Where correlation has been limited to teaching of important and inherently related concepts, efficient reinforcement of ideas can result.

In working on various activities of the unit, groups are frequently formed. The use of committees is possibly most effective and necessary when only a few reference books are available or to do special jobs such as finding additional reference material, conducting interviews with resource people, constructing maps and graphs, writing letters, previewing a film, constructing a model. For a majority of the units, individual study and research possibly should predominate. Where committee work is pursued, care should be taken that pupils do not end with only a very sketchy notion of the total picture of the

unit of work. Dividing the content of a unit in such a way that each child is deeply exposed to only a part of the total content would seem to be open to serious question as a standard procedure. All children need to read and have appropriate mastery of the basic information on the unit topic; all children, of course, do not need to get this information from the same book or in exactly the same way. The basis for selection for committees should seldom be on a voluntary basis. Work assignment to the committees should be clear-cut and definite. The teacher is obligated to do careful planning in advance on his own and with the entire class of pupils before group work is undertaken. In such sessions, desirable group work habits may be considered as well as the work to be done. Ground rules, setting of standards, and routines need to be clear to all. Periods of evaluation in terms of the standards must come frequently for evaluating group activity and group discussion.

The group process should not be over-emphasized. There has been some tendency to identify good educational practice with group activity; to assume that whenever children are working in groups something educationally desirable must be taking place. Actually group pressure can produce unfortunate effects. Being a good group member is too often identified with making adjustments or compromises. The alternative open to the child who doesn't compromise may be group ostracism; he must go along with the group or go it alone. Not to go along with the group too often means that one is not a good group member. Children should be protected from group pressures that encourage mediocrity and destroy individuality. Overuse and misuse of group work can lead to the undue conformity which is being deplored as a feature in today's society.

Nor should the development of skill in working in groups be stressed at the expense of factual content. A good citizen must have factual knowledge upon which to base his interaction with others. Working in groups and studying the group process have a place in the elementary school, but they are not a substitute for substantial content.

Evaluation: It seems axiomatic to state that things important enough to include in the curriculum are worthy of measurement. Evaluation procedures may serve at least a two fold purpose: they indicate the

progress of individual pupils, thereby assisting the teacher to help each pupil; and secondly, they offer information regarding the success of the instructional program, thus helping to bring about needed improvement. Evaluation has a healthy effect upon the statement of objectives, for the stated objectives must again be translated into concrete examples which can indicate growth toward realization of the objectives. Unless the objectives are originally stated in concise terms and carry a standard meaning, sound evaluation is thwarted from the very beginning.

Pencil and paper is a large part of a measurement program, even though objective measurement has not been entirely successful to date. Nonetheless objective measurement has advanced to the point where we are able to measure a pupil's knowledge of facts, concepts, and generalizations by utilizing written tests. Indeed, one can be objective and precise—and yet test for higher level thinking and generalizations that involve facts rather than just facts themselves. Far too often only the factual type of test receives much attention. Every effort should be made to improve the quality of objective devices.

Teacher observation is also a part of evaluation program. This is not objective evidence; yet it is a valuable contribution. Such items as anecdotal records, questionnaires, and general observations of pupils' work influence how a teacher believes the program is functioning. Encouraging the use of subjective judgment is not a plea for vague or hazy measurement. This only leads a teacher into thinking that the work was successful when in fact perhaps a little or nothing was gained from the particular study. Because some teachers have a tendency to accept what they are doing as good because they are doing it, observation cannot stand alone as evaluation—it must be tempered with some objective evidence. Observation untempered by objective evidence makes evaluation a farce; it is simple to say, "I am teaching this because I like it."

Bibliography: Formulation of units or problems requires considerable knowledge on the teacher's part relative to the subject of the unit. These problems often cannot be formulated entirely out of the teacher's general fund of information on the subject; they require special reading and research. A teacher who is preparing a unit cannot find all he

needs in a third-grade textbook. Teacher books and materials on such topics as are planned to be taught are equally as important as children's books on the topic. Teacher background of information and availability of resource materials are most important at the elementary level. To introduce a unit without adequate materials for teacher and pupil use is dangerous, if not foolhardy. In brief, the richness of the unit of work depends to a great extent upon the materials available for teacher and pupil. Materials should be available to take care of the bright, average, and dull pupils. Too often materials in the typical classroom provide for the slower pupils but seldom for the brighter pupils. The amount of money spent on classroom and library material needs greatly to be increased.

Summary: An attempt has been made to encourage the teacher to analyze the approach he is following in unit teaching. Teachers should select and adapt teaching procedures carefully and reject educational fads. Too many teachers are prone to hop on bandwagons—bandwagons of insignificant content; bandwagons of fuzzy objectives; bandwagons of uninhibited children interests and purposeless activity; bandwagons of ludicrous correlation; bandwagons of group dynamics; bandwagons of hazy measurement.

Certainly this is no time for such loose thinking. Verbal intoxication does not take place of critical, hard thinking. Teachers must be realistic in looking at their instructional practices. Such a common sense approach ought to help teachers avoid making many foolish mistakes.

Federally Employed Teachers Face Major Status Change

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A major change in the status of federally employed teachers is scheduled to go into effect beginning with the 1962-1963 school year. The exact number of professional persons which will be affected in the change-over is not known by the writer but an estimate of the total number of teachers employed in federal schools within the United States and abroad is placed at approximately 6,000.

A small percentage of this group is already on civil service status but the vast majority has been classified as federal civilian employees rather than civil service employees.

According to the results of a survey of more than a dozen federal school systems in six southern states, plans are now underway to bring most, if not all of the professional personnel employed in federally operated schools under civil service status at the beginning of the 1962-1963 school year. On the basis of information received from fourteen federal school systems scattered throughout the states of Kentucky, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, and Alabama, teachers in three of the systems answering the questionnaire are already covered by civil service or some modified type of civil service. Of the eleven systems not under civil service regulations during the 1961-1962 school year eight indicated that it is being made mandatory that teaching personnel go under civil service status effective July 1, 1962. This would leave teaching personnel in three of the fourteen school systems covered in the survey on their present status as federal civilian employees during the next school year, unless the systems merely failed to report the expected change. Although the survey covers only a small portion of the schools or school systems now being operated in the U. S. and abroad at defense installations it is safe to say that the results indicate a move by those in authority to place most, if not all, of federally employed teaching personnel under

civil service coverage.

It is believed that this change over in teacher status or classification will cause much reverberation throughout those presently employed in federal schools. Several questions related directly to teacher welfare, morale, security, working conditions, financial benefits, and last but not least, professional prestige, are certain to be raised as those affected take a close look at their positions under the new set-up.

Questions along the following lines will likely be raised. What changes, if any, in the kind of a working day will be made as result of the new classification? Will the standard or traditional type 7½-8 hour work day be instituted or expected in place of the much longer working day usually put in by professional teachers when their school day and planning time are added together? How can the professional status of teaching, with its required education, certification, and training standards, be made a part of a much larger group of workers involved in a multiplicity of technical and specialized jobs not usually requiring an equivalent amount of education and training, without the profession suffering real loss of professional status and distinct identity? This may be the most important facet of the move affecting the large number of teachers now working as federal civilian employees but not submerged with a much larger group of civilians whose skills, training, and education, with some few exceptions, can not be equated with those in the field of education.

Another area where close evaluation of any differences to be realized in the change to Civil Service is that of financial benefits, both immediate and long range. Under their present status teachers usually receive a salary slightly higher than their counterparts in local public schools. Superintendents have referred to this as a sort of compensation for not being included in the teachers retirement program of the state in which employed, some adjustment for travel costs incurred because teachers usually live off the military reservation and may be required to drive a good distance to and from work, or the excess in salary over local public school teachers may be partially attributed to a longer or extended terms of employment for federally employed teachers. It should be noted here that Public Law 874, the Congressional Statute which makes possible the operation of federal schools provides for the use of a formula in determining teacher salaries. In brief essence, the person

charged with the responsibility for preparation of teacher salary schedules of federally employed teachers must use as a basis the salary schedules in effect in from three to five other school systems within the same state with the salary schedule of the school system adjacent to the federally operated school always included as one of the systems used in the proposed salary schedules of a federal school.

Since the issue of salary is not confined solely to the amount paid each month but is best evaluated in terms of other related benefits such as social security, teachers retirement, length of working year, health insurance, medical services, provision for living quarters, and other fringe benefits each person considers the absence or presence of any one or none of these factors as a tangible part of his or her total compensation. For this reason professional or career teachers will want to look closely and objectively at the upcoming change to ascertain whether the total direct and fringe financial benefits equal or exceed those now being received under their present status as federal civilian employees. From the personal experience of the writer while employed as a supervising principal of a federal school there was growing concern on the part of the professional staff that public school professional personnel teaching in the nearby area enjoyed retirement benefits far in excess of those available to federally employed teachers. In the state in question both Social Security and a state teachers retirement program were included in the total benefits accruing to the teacher whereas the federal teachers had only the Social Security program. There was a strong feeling that the comparability clause in Public Law 874 was not being used to fullest advantage to secure for federally employed teachers both Social Security and membership in the state teachers retirement program.

According to the questionnaire federally employed teachers will not continue to take part in the Social Security program beginning with the 1962 school year when they change to Civil Service status. The probability of securing a second employer-employee sponsored and financed retirement program seems to be just as remote under the new program as it has been under their present status or federal civilian employees. Because more and more professional educators in the public schools are being included in Social Security *and* state retirement programs this gives rise to the belief that federally operated schools

will begin to find it increasingly difficult to recruit and keep professionally competent career school personnel in the years ahead. This probably would have happened as career teachers in federally operated schools became more fully aware of the constantly improving status of public school teachers with less visible gains being achieved for them, even if no change in employment status took place. With the impending change to Civil Service accompanied by a loss of Social Security, it is felt that a greater exodus than might have been the case will take place among federally employed teachers who feel that financial compensation both immediate and long range, as well as professional prestige will be much greater in public school work than in federally operated schools. Those connected in the operation of federal schools should watch with interest and concern the attitudes and morale of federally employed teachers as the change to Civil Service status is accomplished in the fall of 1962.

New Schools in Hamburg, Germany

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Schulrat Johannes Frank was a tall, lean, slightly-balding man with twinkling eyes and a quick, business-like manner. There was none of the old Prussian-style bureaucrat in this German school man. He could have passed for his counterpart in any large American city. And he was justly proud of the monumental achievements of Hamburg in the field of education.

Before World War II Hamburg was already one of Germany's largest cities. It had a population of 1,675,000. It was of major significance in manufacturing and transportation. It was Germany's most significant port for overseas trade. As a consequence, it became a prime target during the war. Blockbusters and phosphorus bombs riddled over half of its buildings and sixty per cent of its harbor installations. Forty-eight thousand Hamburgers were killed in the bombings; hundreds of thousands left the city to avoid them. Postwar occupation authorities found a city with a population of less than a million struggling to rebuild a new life.

Hamburg's human resources for this task were highly favorable. The city had been one of Germany's Social Democratic strongholds. Even in the March, 1933, election, when the Nazis used the Reichstag fire to justify a campaign of terror, intimidation, and violence, Hamburg still voted Social Democratic. Hitler never received over twenty-five per cent of the city's vote.

In the years that followed many of the Social Democratic leaders vanished from the scene. Schulrat Frank was one of these. From 1937 to 1939 he was Hitler's guest in one of the Nazi "recreation camps." He and others like him returned to leadership after the war to try to regird their city for a new and better way of life. In his own words, Germany *had* to lose the war. Only thus could it be purged of the evils of the Nazi regime.

Postwar Hamburg quickly recovered and passed its prewar popu-

lation mark. It became one of the cities to which thousands of the refugees from behind the curtain found their way. It was one of the centers of Ludwig Erhard's "Economic Miracle." It quickly outgrew its prewar housing and skyscraper housing projects rose like mushrooms from areas flattened by war. That this population growth carried with it the problem of providing new schools for a rapidly-expanding youth population is self-evident. But that the new schools which were built were to be living symbols of a new and better way of life was not accident but the result of dedicated, tireless efforts by schoolmen with a vision of a better future.

The report which follows is not that of a professional educator working in the field of public schools, but of an "academician," a college professor of history. The visit concerned was accidental, not planned, based on the friendship of a former student rather than an assigned project. The observations concerned are, therefore, less professional than would be those of one working in the field of education itself, but are colored by the belief that many aspects of "modern education" in our own country are good, that the best criterion of a good school system is joyful learning, and that the education of school children encompasses much more than the study of academic subjects. By these measures the school system of Hamburg certainly deserved an A-1 rating.

Since the war Hamburg has built 127 new schools. Many of these are not fully completed. This is understandable when one learns the full scope of a completed *Volksschule*. Each of these new schools is provided with spacious grounds. They are not cramped in between great buildings, but provided with space for lovely gardens. This is in itself no mean accomplishment, for in the midst of housing shortages there is constant pressure for land for the construction of housing projects. But the buildings themselves cover much ground and the gardens attached to them are considered an integral part of the school plan. Funds provided partially by the city, partially by parent contributions, are used to purchase flowers, shrubs, and trees, and each class in the school helps to care for a part of the garden. This personal involvement of all the students in the beautification of their school grounds is a wonderful factor in identifying students with their

school and in cultivating in them a love for beauty.

The basic units of Hamburg's new schools are in the form of a cross. This allows all the classrooms to have windows on both sides. The old "barracks" style of German school construction has given way to light and sunshine. Tables and chairs have replaced fixed desks. Green-tinted blackboards and display boards are on the walls. An American child would find these classrooms as familiar as his own—if his school were a new and modern one. Less familiar would be the location of the German equivalent of manual training, domestic science, physical science, and art education rooms and of gymnasias and auditoriums. These are in the Hamburg plan dispersed in a group of three or four separate buildings, sometimes joined to the main classroom building with covered walks. These, too, are modern and well equipped. When fully completed, all schools will also have an interior, heated swimming pool. Already over ninety per cent of Hamburg's school children learn to swim during their days in the *Volksschule*.

Almost as impressive as the gleaming new buildings is the philosophy of education represented by their teachers. Although some still like to arrange tables and chairs in neat military order, this is discouraged. Children enjoy schools and love their teachers. As one of the latter remarked, when he was a boy, he would have gone out of his way to avoid meeting his teacher during vacation periods. But when he had recently been vacationing in one of Germany's resort areas, a whole group of his students had come running to see him, their faces beaming at this fortunate encounter.

Several special types of schools are quite interesting. One is a *Versuchsschule*, an experimental school. In this school the normal pattern of morning classes Monday through Saturday is replaced by morning and afternoon classes Monday through Friday, with the normal classroom hours for academic work being supplemented by extra time for special projects in fields of interest. This might be in manual training or creative art or dress-making. Although not all the parents are pleased with this kind of changed schedule, the children love the school and are intensely interested in their work. Exhibit boards and cases here and in other schools gave evidence of quality work in many fields. It might also be noted that a number of the

schools had miniature zoos. One was equipped with a heated, interior room where monkeys played cheerfully, while birds flew about freely, and alligators, lizards, and other strange animals enjoyed the artificial environment created for them by the students. As Schulrat Frank expressed it, they hoped that the care of animals as well as of gardens might create in their children the sense of responsibility for others which had sometimes been lacking in German character.

Another special school was the *Hilfschule*, the “help” school, for those who could not quite keep pace in the regular schools. In this school classes were smaller than in the others. The teachers were particularly trained for their job. Training, often amounting to four years beyond that of the regular teacher, was partially financed by the city. If the teacher completed this course of training and proved to be suited for work in the Help School, he received a higher salary for this position, the differential usually about two hundred marks a month. Often parents objected to seeing their children placed in one of these schools, which seemed to carry a stigma of inferiority. But their opposition was usually overcome by the happiness of the child, who found himself in a situation with which he could cope, one where smaller classes and sympathetic teachers helped him make progress which had previously been impossible.

Hamburg still has many educational problems to solve. Teacher’s salaries, although reasonable by German standards, still leave teachers not too much better off than skilled factory workers. The pressure for new schools continues as each new housing project poses the problem of providing for the children it will accommodate. Some teachers find the new style of education difficult and unpleasant. The teaching of recent history provides a troublesome problem. Some teachers have tended to end their history courses with the First World War, but efforts are now being made to insist that the catastrophic days of the Third Reich be dealt with. School children find it difficult to understand how their parents could have been involved in such strange and repelling activities as those of the Hitler period. It would appear that some of the distinction between the children who will go to college and those who will not still remains, but a testing program separates those of superior ability and encouragement and aid in work towards

higher education is provided in the city.

As an historian deeply interested in the history and culture of Germany, the writer found the Hamburg school system a reflection of the best type of "Americanization" of Germany. This interest in American schools and educational patterns originated shortly after the First World War. Many educational leaders were among the flood of German travelers who made *Studienreisen*, study-trips, to the United States at that time.¹ Although they were often critical of American schools, they were much impressed by the fact that American children went gladly to school, that classrooms were filled with happy faces and friendly teachers. Americans may be justly proud that German schools have now absorbed much of the spirit and atmosphere of our schools.

¹ The author's trip to Germany was also a "study-trip," sponsored by the Research Council of the Florida State University, in which he was collecting materials for a future book dealing with German views of the United States during the period of the Weimar Republic.

Teacher Training and Public Health

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The Twentieth Century ushered in a revised and broadened attitude toward youngsters and the function of the school. The youngsters began to enjoy the advantage of being considered individuals. Their health and general welfare received more and more attention. Preventive measures replaced curative measures, and clinics sponsored by school districts became prominent.

Most school districts now boast of public health nurses whose qualifications approach adequacy. Medical doctors, dental hygienists, and dentists are not uncommon. Counselors are customarily present, and psychologists or psychiatrists are on call. The list of professional people dedicated to the maintenance and improvement of the child's general well-being becomes impressive. However, the fact remains that the classroom teacher most often lacks sufficient knowledge concerning public health and disease prevention and control.

This lack of knowledge on the part of the teacher does not bespeak of outmoded training or academic negligence. Teachers simply do not have time to become experts in all areas, and their scopes of interest can be limited. Yet, in the classroom a basic knowledge of public health and measures tending to improve public health is often vital.

The new trend in elementary education presupposes subject-matter specialization. No longer do courses in Education suffice. A teacher must stress some academic area. Thus, why not include Public Health and Disease Prevention and Control as a subject specialty?

This proposal to offer Public Health as an academic major for teachers does not attempt to make the present professional staff obsolescent but seeks to aid the staff in its difficult task. Teachers whose college major is Public Health and Disease Prevention and Control can be of invaluable service to other teachers, and the professional

staff can realize a better and more mature follow-through on their suggestions.

In addition to offering Public Health and Disease Prevention and Control as an academic major for teachers, an in-service teacher-training program in public health and preventive measures should prove beneficial. Institutes and workshops could act as excellent opportunities for acquainting teachers with the necessary public health information. At least one of the required institute-sessions each year could be profitably devoted to public health.

Perhaps one of the most practical ways of inducing teachers to become aware of up-to-date public health information is through offering introductory courses in public health measures at the college and university campuses, or more conveniently, within the school districts themselves. Teachers generally enroll in at least one college class every two or three years, and a public health course given at a centralized location should be successful.

Instructors of these classes should be recognized authorities in public health and should be good teachers. Often classes become laborious if the instructors are not satisfactory, and the purposes of the classes are lost. Such classes usually fail to affect an improvement in an undesirable situation.

Summer-school schedules for teachers should include listings of class-sections devoted to public health and disease prevention and control. In addition, general courses in Biology would prove helpful and beneficial. A general knowledge of the body and its functions increases the probability of learning and retaining public health information.

Public health and general welfare concern every youngster and adult. Knowledge of the body is vital to everyone, and a basic understanding of the organs within the body reduces fear and superstition. If teachers possess this knowledge, perhaps the adults of tomorrow will more readily care for themselves.

Educational Problem—Administrator Versus Teacher

PAUL CABLE

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Have you ever been in the front office of a large manufacturing firm and received, from the well dressed executive, an invitation to tour the plant? The change of atmosphere from a plush front office to the unadorned simplicity of the skilled laborers place of working is about as contrasting as going from the college president's office to the college classroom, or from the principal's office to the elementary or secondary school classroom. Along with this changed context goes an almost similar change in point of view. It would be difficult to get support for the existence of such an unwholesome attitude from school personnel in either area, but in the living rooms of the country the truth comes out. It is discussed in the teachers' lounges, if they exist at all, and the executive meetings of administrative heads the country over. Perhaps in a time of, so called, "crisis in the schools" we need to look into this apparent leadership-followship paradox.

Where could the heart of the problem center? Perhaps it is as old and as deep as human weakness itself. Certainly, the most pressing problems of our times arise from human weaknesses. Could it be sorrow, greed, exploitation, selfishness, contempt, jealousy, or perhaps even cowardice? Witness the fist-beating and table pounding of our latest capturer of world attention, Mr. Khrushchev. But what has this got to do with education? Perhaps these generally unwholesome concepts have also found their places in schools and school systems. It seems, that the bent toward science has refined our specialization to the point that the right hand no longer knows what the left hand is doing. Perhaps this application could just as well be made between the teacher and the school administrator. Even teachers find themselves departmentalized nearly to the point of what might be called "academic segregation."

Few institutions of learning, at any level, have any real programs of orientation for their teachers. Beginning teachers often flounder for lack of information on policy and procedure and fail to get a good start on teaching our children at the very beginning of their careers. Perhaps administrators need pay a little more attention to what teachers want to know rather than to what they ought to know, and to what they do know, rather than to what they should know. Information on a mirage of commonplace knowledge to the administrator could be much less matter-of-fact to the novice teacher. Teachers just don't pull information on evaluating students, discipline policies, requisitioning supplies, securing needed equipment, and school routines out of the air. Clear understandings here and in many other areas, could lead to better rapport among administrators and teachers. What if such considerations of faculty welfare are ignored? What usually takes place is that power builds up in the administrative area and the teachers' fight for academic freedom becomes a reality.

We grow and develop through the application of a working democracy. Let us pause for the refreshment of a collective, intelligent, and democratic group process and renew our faith in the schools. Let us call for teachers and administrators to work together to gain new and more cohesive relationships between themselves.

If we believe that cooperation is the key to progress, let us strive to that end and call for teacher-administrator cooperation. Let us also call for collective policy making by all those effected by the policy. If teachers follow only the policy made in the administrative hierarchy, then freedom becomes a mockery and human dignity a fiction.

The effectiveness of an educational idea must be measured by what contributions it has made to improve the learning for our school children. Can teachers at odds with administrators get effective results in the classroom? Can administrators at odds with teachers operate with efficiency in their areas of responsibility? The answers to these questions are obvious. The schools are for the people; they should continue to serve the people, but the people must call for a new era of teacher-administrator cooperation. We can evaluate the results by the fruits of our schools, the most precious commodity and resource of our nation—our children.

Recent Research in Public School Administration

Representative Investigations (1957-1961)

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Although there is abundant textbook material available to the student of public school administration, the primary challenges and emphases are best seen in the periodical material which has been devoted to the investigation of the administrative function. Actually, it is in the journal article that the administrative function is best defined since it is seen as an evolving function closely tied to teaching, community *rapport*, staff and curriculum evaluation, and supervision. The following fifteen articles are, I believe, representative in that they underscore the chief concerns of the administrator, and in some ways allow the fuller definition of his scope. In selecting the articles for inclusion I have been guided by two considerations: (1) the article's representative concern with what appears to be recurring interest; (2) cogency of presentation. Although *Decade of Experiment* is not a periodical, I felt that one of its sections might be evaluated as a single contribution.

R. PRINCE, "Individual Values and Administrative Effectiveness," *Administrator's Note Book*, Vol. 6 (December, 1957), pp. 1-4.

Largely an attempt to discover whether personality differences (or similarities) in administrator-teacher relations affect administrators' teacher ratings. The author devises some *inventory* type tests which he administers and then applies against specific situations. No role of personality difference or similarity discerned, but, again, conclusions are too categorically drawn. This type of investigation introduces imponderables which cannot be assessed. Agree with conclusions, but not on author's grounds.

M. L. STORY, "Defining the Administrative Function," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 46 (January, 1958), pp. 371-74.

A very cogent analysis of effective school administration. The administrator should work with small groups drawn from the administrative and supervisory

staff, rather than with all at any one time. Group action (carefully defined, e.g., curricular, etc.) makes for fuller implementation. Generally agree, if only in the pragmatic observation that decision is more easily achieved and total defined decision becomes cumulative.

C. R. VAN DUSEN, "Communications Breakdown In Educational Administration," *Education*, Vol. 81 (April, 1961), pp. 501-503.

Article deals with ". . . the question of the effectiveness of principal-teacher conferences in the elementary school." (p. 501) Twenty principals were interviewed, but what promised to be an interesting survey ended with platitudes: e.g., "Teachers fail to listen to what is being said." (p. 501) All in all, a direct statement from each principal without the procrustean, omnipresent question-sheet may have been more informative.

"Salary Provisions For Quality of Service: Views of Superintendents," *NEA Research Bulletin*, Vol. 37 (December, 1959), pp. 106-111.

Typically thorough research from NEA on a controversial issue. A total of 196 superintendents interviewed who had some quality-of-service provisions in their salary schedules. Nearly 4 in ten reported a good effect from such provisions; 3 in ten, that only a few teachers benefitted; and 3 in ten that such provisions had little discernible effect. Surprisingly, few only reported a poor effect on the morale of the teachers. We remain skeptical about any instrument devised to measure professional competence. No substitute exists for good judgment of the superintendent.

ROBERT W. STRICKLER, "Follow Through With The First-Year Teacher," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 45 (January, 1959), pp. 2-6.

An essentially sound commentary on the great responsibility of administrative leadership to ensure basic guidance for the novice in the most crucial year of teaching, which augurs the need for more attention to this matter. Article's main value lies in a "proposed establishment of a program of in-service education specifically and solely for the first-year teacher." (p. 5)

W. RAY RUCKER and WILSON F. WETZLER, "Staff And Curriculum Evaluation: One Process," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 45 (January, 1959), pp. 26-35.

We feel that the school curriculum increasingly is defined as the total experience of a child within the climate of school life, and therefore applaud this article which largely suggests that "The influence of all school personnel affecting the program should be evaluated continuously." Rejecting the simple checklist procedure of rating a teacher, the authors have devised an essentially pragmatic, long range program which will each year allow an effective teacher evaluation.

JAMES J. JONES, "The Superintendent Must Lead in Curriculum Development," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 45 (March, 1959), pp. 91-94.

A poor, historically inaccurate and philosophically immature presentation which would make much more than what the title soundly suggests practicable for the American superintendent. Actually, the author fails to see the need for the consultation of curriculum specialists, and that the primary responsibility of the superintendent, curricularly, would be to explain the program to the board of education; in one sense, it is trite to suggest that the superintendent "initiates the program." Any good administrative officer does.

LUTHER E. BRADFIELD, "Elementary School Teachers: Their Problems and Supervisory Assistance," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 45 (March, 1959), pp. 102-106.

A very interesting abstract-article of a doctoral dissertation done at Indiana University, surveying some fifty selected elementary schools in Arkansas. Elementary school principal largely responsible for a supervision which was very effective in those procedures "related to democratic leadership, good human relations, and group action." (p. 105) Generally, the article underscores the effective relationship between co-operative teachers and a democratic leader who "helps with suggestions, yet permits freedom of initiative." (p. 106)

GEORGE C. BOLZ, "The Principal and The Staff Bulletin," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 45 (March, 1959), pp. 111-114.

A very cogent presentation of a problem on which we are presently engaged. For the author, "... the staff bulletin is an aid to improve communication, not a substitute for direct personal contact among individuals." (p. 113) Actually, the staff bulletin should, at best, be edited by the principal; the contributions should come from the staff. This would allow the direct sharing of valuable techniques, procedures and other adjuncts. In essence, the article remains an informal commentary on how problems were resolved in one school in setting up an effective staff bulletin.

H. M. HARMES, "Improving Teaching Through Supervision: How Is It Working?" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 45 (May, 1959), pp. 169-172.

Supervision is "... broadly defined as services provided for the improvement of instruction." (p. 169) The article is a literature-review commentary drawing its materials from investigations which have, through interview, gathered data from teachers. Generally, results have suggested that many differences "of perception between teachers and supervisors exist concerning methods of

dealing with problems.” (p. 172) Article’s conclusions are not properly extrapolated in accordance with established techniques. At best, literature reviewed is not sufficiently representative. Conclusions at most presumptive.

JOHN H. M. ANDREWS and ALAN F. BROWN, “Can Principals Exclude Their Own Personality Characteristics When They Rate Their Teachers,” *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 45 (July, 1959), pp. 234-242.

A very abstruse, quasi-scientific attempt to postulate essentially subjective and sociological dicta. The *Edwards Personal Preference Schedule* was administered to a total of 608 subjects. Interpretation suggested that “confidence in rating [be increased] . . . as a measure of effectiveness as far as this spurious personality effect is concerned.” (p. 242) Would be inclined not so much to reject conclusion which our experience accepts, but rather the pseudo-scientific ground on which it is based.

RALPH B. KIMBROUGH, “The Behavioral Characteristics of Effective Educational Administrators,” *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 45 (November, 1959), pp. 337-348.

A very provocative notice of research at the University of Tennessee over a period of six years “dealing with the question of what behavioral characteristics differentiate between effective and ineffective administrators.” (p. 338) *Rating Guide* was constructed and its validity carefully checked in three system-wide school experiments. With funds from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation some national samplings were attempted. The *Rating Guide* was found to be an important adjunct in assessing prospective administrators.

“Maximum Salaries for School Administrators,” *NEA Research Bulletin*, Vol. 38 (December, 1960), pp. 121-123.

A report on the 173 urban school districts 100,000 and over in population. Districts were divided into two groups: Group I, 500,000 or over; Group II, 100,000 to 500,000. Generally, salaries were higher in Group I, as would be expected. Interestingly, most districts from both groups have higher salaries for secondary than for elementary school principals. Top salaries for principals in big cities approach \$12,000, as a mean. Figures reported are for 1960-61 year.

“Modern Business Methods,” *Decade of Experiment*. New York: The Fund For the Advancement of Education [1961], pp. 97-102.

We read this article to see what current educational administration has done in the important area of business methods. Generally, the last decade has seen ■ growing use of modern administrative and technological developments from the business world applied to the business aspects of education. Unfortunately,

the Fund has in the last ten years emphasized higher education in studies in this area. The work of the late Beardsley Ruml (*Teaching Salaries Then and Now*) for the Fund was concerned with higher education.

HOWARD S. BRETSCH, "Promising Developments in the Professionalization of Educational Administration, *School of Education Bulletin*, University of Michigan, Vol. 30 (April, 1959), pp. 97-102.

An interesting commentary on the "internship" plan in educational administration with review of the program as it is administered by the School of Education of the University of Michigan. Essentially, strongly emphasizes the need for a period of interne training under the experienced administrator, noting the need for the application of classroom theory to actual situation. In selecting ■ program for the prospective educational executive, a broad inter-disciplinary approach stressed to prepare the administrator not only for the technical school details with which he will have to deal, but pre-eminently make him responsive to the many facets of the community to which he must respond.

PEABODY BIMONTHLY BOOKNOTES

Selected Professional and Cultural Books for a Teacher's Library

JULY, 1962

Booknotes Committee: Susan B. Riley, William W. FitzGerald, Norman Frost,
Chairman

Secretary to the Committee: Janette Brach

Annotators for this Issue:

Edwin Anderson, Myrtle Bomar, John E. Brewton, Claude Chadwick, Robert Cleary, Mabel Corry, Alfred Crabb, Becky Daughety, Norman Frost, William Griffin, Katherine Hall, Nicholas Hobbs, H. Craig Sipe, Matthew Trippe, Ned Warren, Russell Whitaker.

Children's Literature

BAILEY, BERNADINE. *Picture Book of Idaho*. Whitman, 1962. unp. \$1.25.

Similar in coverage to the other titles in this series, this book gives us brief but very useful information about the natural resources, scenery, outstanding points in history, and the special events in the present activities of the state. The concise text and arrangement make this a valuable reference tool for all elementary research.

BARR, CATHERINE. *Seven Chicks Missing*. Walck, 1962. 32p. \$2.25.

Madame Grouse, followed by her seven chicks, struts proudly. One by one the chicks leave her to satisfy their own curiosity. Saddened at her loss, she is restored to good spirits when Bill lures the brood back with grain. Text and illustrations combine to make this a charming little book.

BAUMANN, HANS. *I Marched with Hannibal*. Walck, 1962. 226p. \$3.50.

This is a splendid account of the Carthaginian army's march over the Alps, and its encounters with the Romans, given through the eyes of a young captive, turned elephant-boy. No doubt because it is a translation from the German, descriptions of sacked and burned towns, of the mechanic of war, and especially of the fanatic young general are deeply felt. The story rings true and will be an excellent addition to the shelves. High school reading.

BEATTY, PATRICIA. *Bonanza Girl*. Morrow, 1962. 224p. \$2.95.

When pap died mama thought it would be all right to take 13-year-old Katie and her younger brother to Idaho territory where she might get a place as a teacher at high salary. Things did not turn out that way, but things were interesting. There is some over-emphasis on the wilderness of the wild west, but it is an interesting book for girls about 10 to 14.

BENEDICT, DOROTHY. *Fabulous*. Pantheon, 1961. 220p. \$3.00.

Fabulous—sight unseen Mistie Seaton picked this name for the new foal that was hers—and fabulous he was! The colt developed the unusual, gaudy color pattern of the Appaloosa and could become a true Pony of the Americas. The story of this new breed, as well as the adventures of Mistie and Fabulous are delightfully told for all boys and girls who love horses and horse stories.

BETHERS, RAY. *Ships of Adventure*. Hastings House, 1962. 47p. \$2.95.

This book was written and illustrated by a U.S. Naval officer and the true stories briefly told here will interest upper elementary readers. They deal with famous and unusual ships, beginning with the earliest efforts to sail the sea, up to the atomic submarine of today. Some stories are weird as one could imagine, some inspiring, all are interesting to those who love ships.

BUEHR, WALTER. *Volcano*. Morrow, 1962. 95p. \$3.00.

For a child interested in volcanoes, this is a fascinating book. In scientific but clear terms, and aided by his own exciting illustrations, Walter Buehr describes the underground conditions that cause volcanoes. He also tells where the world's volcanoes are, describes historic eruptions, and tells what is good about a volcano. All in all a most exciting information-packed book. Ages 10-14.

CHIPPERFIELD, JOSEPH. *Ghost Horse*. Roy, 1962. 190p. \$3.75.

This thrilling story of a wild stallion and some of the dealings of western cow hands with him, has much of the feeling and quality of some of the stories by Ernest Seton Thompson. The courage and resourcefulness of the stallion, and the tenacity and eventual understanding of Jim Blaine make an absorbing tale for high school age youth.

CIRKER, BLANCHE. *Five Great Dog Novels*. Dover, 1961. 495p. \$1.50.

The five novels included are *The Call of the Wild*, by Jack London, *Rab and His Friends*, by John Brown, *Bob Son of Battle*, by Alfred Ollivant, *Beautiful Joe* by Marshall Saunders, and a *A Dog of Flanders*, by Ouida. Good quality paper back.

DAVIS, VERNE. *Time of the Wolves*. Morrow, 1962. 127p. \$2.95.

This is a story of wolves, and cattle and the bravery of two boys. The setting is the early days in Michigan. There is tension, and suspense to satisfy the most thrill loving boys about 8 to 12.

EARLE, OLIVE. *Birds of the Crow Family*. Morrow, 1962. 63p. \$2.75.

For young people interested in birds, this book about the birds of the crow family—crows, ravens, magpies, jays—will be informative and entertaining reading. Clear, exact, illustrations complement the text. Ages 8-12.

EBERLE, IRMENGARDE. *Fawn in the Woods*. Crowell, 1962. 42p. \$3.50.

Excellent photography helps to tell incidents in the life of a deer from birth through the activities of living in his native forest. Edited for young readers, the text is presented in interesting, informative style, well spaced with illustrations, and appearing in large clear type. This author is well known to elementary groups and they will welcome this new addition to the collection.

ESTORIL, JEAN. *Drina Dances in Italy*. Vanguard, 1962. 192p. \$3.00.

Drina makes an important decision while she is visiting her Italian grandmother, whom she had never seen before. She lives with her English grandparents in London and is studying ballet, as her mother had done. Drina's most exciting opportunity comes while she was in Italy, however, and elementary girls interested in dancing and theatre, will sympathize with her moods and problems.

GREENE, CARLA. *A Trip to the Zoo*. Lantern, 1962. 45p. \$2.75.

Which is smarter, a chimpanzee or a gorilla? Why does a polar bear have white fur? Questions such as these are answered in this new book in the highly successful series of "Trip" books written by Carla Greene. This book combines readability with interesting information, intriguing illustrations, and entertainment. Ages 4-7.

HOGNER, NILS. *Molly the Black Mare*. Walck, 1962. 48p. \$2.75.

Early elementary horse lovers will enjoy the beautiful two color drawings of this author illustrator, as well as the adventures of Molly, as separated from the herd she must take care of her newborn foal. The dangers she had to face will thrill them, and they will enjoy the happy ending when Tex finds her and she rejoins the herd.

HUGHES, PETER. *Emporer's Oblong Pancake*. Abelard, Schuman, 1962. unpag. \$2.95.

Elementary readers remembering their enjoyment of the fairy tale about the em-

porer and his new clothes, will be intrigued by this light adventure of another emporer (or maybe the same!) as he takes up the problem of making everything in his province-oblong of all things. It all began with an oblong panacke given him on his birthday, and his desire to be different.

LATHAM, JEAN and LEWI, BEE. *Cuckoo That Couldn't Count*. Macmillan, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

A fun book, which will be read and re-read just because it is such fun. The humorous colored pictures will be a delight to the primary readers, also. It will enliven story hours, as it gives opportunity for group participation throughout the story. Highly recommended for readers who need help in their approach to reading.

LATHAM, JEAN and LEWI, BEE. *Dog That Lost His Family*. Macmillan, 1962. unp. \$2.50.

Skipper is a dog who was away from home when his family moved. Whenever in the story there is a place when "Skipper said,—" the children bark, and so take part in the telling. Skipper does find his family, so the ending is a happy one. An entrancing story for pre-school and lower grade school children.

LATHAM, JEAN LEE and LEWI, BEE. *When Homer Honked*. Macmillan, 1961. unp. \$2.50.

A delightful story for children 4 to 8. When it comes to "Homer said," the children honk, vigorously, and they love it. When Miss Tilly's brother Jeremy came to visit he thought he could not stand Homer's honking. Then Homer saved Jeremy's life. Both story and illustrations are entrancing.

MOWAT, FARLEY. *Owls in the Family*. Little, Brown, 1962. 103p. \$2.95.

This popular author has given elementary readers a convincing story of a boy's adventure with two pet owls. Life in Saskatchewan is the background, and the account covers the experience from the beginning of the search for young owls until the parting with them. The observations, humorous

and keen, are made through the eyes of a boy and are thoroughly enjoyable. Recommended.

MUSE, HELEN. *Green Pavilions*. Carlton, 1961. 260p. \$3.00.

Green Pavilions is an unusual novel composed of many varied and complex characters all of whom revolve around Jere Holiday, the Virginian who travelled to the French colony of the Great Lakes and settled. The family conflicts of the pioneer period and the French and Indian War make this an appealing historical novel for more mature teenagers.

NASH, OGDEN. *New Nutcracker Suite and Other Innocent Verses*. Little, Brown, 1962. 47p. \$3.50.

At the suggestion of Mr. Goddard Lieberman of Columbia Records, Ogden Nash wrote the verses here presented to be narrated to the music of Andre Kostelanetz. Those for "The Nutcracker Suite" are loosely based on the traditional story of the Tchaikovsky ballet. Those for "Between Birthdays" were written to accompany a selection of the piano pieces in Tchaikovsky's Children's Album. This is a book to read and look at (the illustrations are gay and charming) by itself; or better yet, to read and look at while you listen to Tchaikovsky's music.

PALAZZO, TONY. *Let's Go to the Jungle*. Doubleday, 1962. 88p. \$2.95.

This popular illustrator has prepared here a beautiful collection of animals for primary nature study. Colorful, full page pictures, accompanied by a brief descriptive text, make a reference book that can be easily used by young readers. The animals are classified in seven groups, in this way the study understanding something of the background in which the animal lives.

PINE, TILLIE and LEVINE, JOSEPH. *Eskimos Knew*. McGraw Hill, 1962. 32p. \$2.75.

As in the preceding titles in this series, the author gives us here simplified information about discoveries early people made, in this case it is the Eskimo. Well illustrated

and arranged, the subject can easily be used by elementary readers who are just beginning to do bits of research in social studies.

PLENN, DORIS. *Violet Tree*. Farrar Strauss, 1962. 128p. \$3.25.

Tico was a fighting rooster, but that was not what he wanted to be. He felt that his life must be more important than that. He met a courageous hen who encouraged him to change his life. The story, beautifully written and illustrated, for elementary reading, tells how these two in company of an unusual horse searched for a happy place to live where they could live in peace.

PRIOLO, PAULINE. *Piccolina and Easter Bells*. Little, Brown, 1962. 47p. \$3.00.

This is a heart warming story based upon a legend from the author's childhood in Sicily. It is illustrated with tenderness and charm. Piccolina was so small that her friends were sorry for her. She wanted most of all to grow tall. Today her wish would come true for today was the day before Easter when the bells in Sicily would ring out and the children in the village would be lifted by their tallest relatives. As high as they were lifted, so tall would they grow. Last year Piccolina had been lifted by her mother, and she grew hardly at all. But this Easter her tall father would lift her high and she would surely grow tall.

RADAU, JANNIS. *Illampu*. Abelard, 1962. 159p. \$3.00.

The author of this story, a German, a teacher of geography and, more, of human geography, has told a valuable tale of a fifteen-year-old Indian boy in the mountains of Bolivia. It would be a fine addition to sixth grade reading because of the beauty of its humanity and because so many elementary books lack the fine quality that appears here. It would do well also as additional reading for high school classes in Spanish I.

ROBINSON, BARBARA. *Across from Indian Shore*. Lothrop, 1962. 158p. \$3.50.

Luke was an unhappy boy after the death of his understanding father, and he decided

to run away from home. His father's nature was strong in him, so he decided to go into a life the two had often talked of. Middle elementary readers will enjoy the unexpected adventures Luke had and will approve of the decision he makes in the end. Interesting black and white illustrations.

ROSENWASSER, DOROTHY. *Everett the Elephant*. Bobbs, Merrill, 1962. unpag. \$2.50.

Everett, the elephant, was a beautiful baby animal, but he grew difficult about food, then there were problems. A humorous, rhyming text and lively colorful full page illustrations carry the story of what happened when Everett began to eat again. This delightful story, well edited and arranged, will charm beginning readers.

SAVIOZZI, ADRIANA. *Somebody Saw*. World, 1962. unpag. \$2.95.

Very young children, ages 3-6, will enjoy the imaginative game of who saw what. The engaging naturalness of the story is perfectly matched by the gaiety of the double page spread drawings in four colors.

SCHATZ, LETTA. *When Will My Birthday Be?* McGraw Hill, 1962. 31p. \$2.50.

An unusual approach to the study of seasons, appears here as a child waits for the important date—his own birthday. When will it ever come again, he wonders, "Watch the apple tree," his mother said. "Wait for the apple blossoms." The events in the life of the family as the year passes are well told for the beginning reader, and the lovely three color illustrations make a beautiful book for him to enjoy.

SODERBERG, EUGENIE. *Mokihanna Lives in Hawaii*. Macmillan, 1962. unpag. \$2.00.

Beautiful photography presents here for the elementary reader some interesting high lights in the life of children in Hawaii. Kite flying, birthday events, beach activities, etc., make delightful background for social studies enrichment. Brief simple text is well spaced with the illustrations. Recommended.

SWIFT, HILDEGARDE. *From the Eagle's Wing*. Morrow, 1962. 287p. \$3.95.

A biography of John Muir, this book begins with the fearless, copperheaded laddie in Scotland, follows him to his back-breaking work of homesteading in Wisconsin, on through early inventions and wanderings, through pioneer geological explorations. Finally it shows him as America's leading naturalist and conservationist. Mrs. Swift has written a sensitive, probing book of the "Daemon" possessed Muir. Recommended for high school naturalists.

SYME, RONALD. *Walter Raleigh*. Morrow, 1962. 96p. \$2.75.

Ronald Syme has a flair for writing entertainingly while he informs. He is especially effective when writing of the Elizabethan period. In this story of one of the great Elizabethans he shows Walter Raleigh's greatest contribution to his times and to our own American history. Ages 8 to 12.

TREGASKIS, RICHARD. *John F. Kennedy and PT-109*. Random House, 1962. 192p. \$1.95.

A combination of PT fighting in the Solomon Island of the 109, is sure to be a hit in the elementary library. This account of the mosquito boats role in the Pacific theatre is nicely balanced with the story of a glamorous young man's realization that a leader's responsibility requires more than ordinary courage. There are excellent photographs.

WEILL, LISL. *Sorcerer's Apprentice*. Little, Brown, 1962. 31p. \$2.95.

This is the familiar story of the magician's apprentice who brought catastrophe upon himself when he dared to try to practice the art of magic before he had sufficiently learned the art. Storytellers have told it. Musicians have told it. Now Lisl Weill tells it with pictures that match the Music of Paul Dukas' orchestral work. The music and drawings and the world all tell the same exciting story—an excellent illustration of the close relationship of the arts.

Education and Psychology

FRENCH, WILL AND OTHERS. *American High School Administration*. 3rd ed. Holt, Rinehart, 1962. 590p. \$7.00.

One of the highly requested, standard texts in the field. This edition represents a quite thorough revision.

ROGERS, DOROTHY. *Oswego*. Appleton, 1961. 305p. \$5.00.

Oswego is a patent name in the history of education of teacher. The story of the school there is here told with an adequate understanding of the basic facts, sympathy with the motives involved, and in direct and clear phrase.

Services For Children with Emotional Disturbances. American Public Health Assn., 1962. \$2.50.

This ninth in a series of excellent guides, on services to handicapped children presents a summary of current knowledge and points of view about children with severe emotional problems. Interested school personnel will find valuable material on medical aspects and community programs but little on educational planning.

THOMAS, LAWRENCE. *Perspective on Teaching*. Prentice Hall, 1961. 432p. \$9.00.

This is an extremely useful text. Its purpose is "to introduce the reader to the problems of education as seen from the viewpoint of the professionally trained teacher and administrator, "and it is designed primarily for students contemplating teaching careers in the public school of America and, as well, for the concerned American public. Clearly ordered, carefully edited, enriched with lists of discussion topics, suggested further reading, and up to date photographs of public school operations, and yet succinct enough to encourage the general reader, the book is one teachers may well recommend to parents and prospective teachers.

English

PRANINSKAS, JEAN. *Rapid Review of English Grammar*. Prentice Hall, 1961. 310p. \$3.95.

A carefully edited and attractive manual intended, not as a text for beginners, but, rather, for foreign students who come to the country with extensive, and yet imperfect knowledge of the language to enter college and who will "need English as a tool." This should be a very useful manual, both for the foreign student who works in a class and him who works alone.

VIVIAN, CHARLES, AND JACKSON, B. M. *English Compositions*. Barnes & Noble, 1961. 451p. \$2.50. College Outline Series.

Like others in the College Outline series, this text is well ordered, generally comprehensive, carefully edited. Perhaps its most interesting feature is that it is keyed to some thirty-seven current textbooks in the field of College English.

Health and Physical Education

HOOKS, GENE. *Application of Weight Training to Athletics*. Prentice Hall, 1962. 254p. \$7.00.

This is a fine and much needed contribution to the weight training materials. The author has taken each sport and discussed the type program particularly suited to the participant. Varsity type sports as well as weight training in the Physical education instruction program are included. The training program advocated here is designed to assist the participant in a systematic way to attain excellence in his chosen sport or sports. It should attract the attention of the athletic coach.

Literature

DORSON, RICHARD. *Folklore Research around the World*. Indiana Univ. 1961. 197p. \$5.00. Indiana Univ. Folklore Series #16.

This collection of essays is the outgrowth of the 1958 Folklore Institute of America

held at Indiana University, in which American folklorists examined the character of the folklore studies as they have developed on five continents.

HANNAN, JOSEPH. *Never Tease a Dinosaur*. Holt, 1962. 134p. \$3.50.

The absolutely delightful tale of a man who is an elementary school teacher. Teachers and parents alike will find this volume hilarious reading, for there is no doubt but that the author knows whereof he writes.

LANE, ROBERT. *Liberties of Wit, Humanism, Criticism, and Civic Mind*. Hale, 1961. 141p. \$3.75.

A professor of political science here proves himself to be a humanist in the best sense of the word. His survey of the criticism and teaching of literature is one of the most thought provoking challenges to tradition that has appeared in a long time.

Recreation

MIRACLE, LEONARD AND DECKER, M. H. *Complete Book of Camping*. Harper, 1962. 594p. \$4.95.

This book is designed to serve as an encyclopedia of camping lore. The wide range of subjects discussed include; planning the trip, proper equipment, camp cookery, pitching the tent, the camp, how to survive if lost, emergency, first aid, how to combat insects and other pests. Over 300 illustrations show all types of camping equipment as well as step by step instructions for making a camping trip a complete success. The book is in hand pocket size, and bound in water proof covers.

Science and Mathematics

BOYS, SIR CHARLES VERNON. *Soap Bubbles*. Crowell, 1962. 280p. \$3.95.

Reprint of one of the classic Royal Institution Christmas Lectures in durable binding.

MILLER, DAVID AND BLAYDES, GLENN. *Methods and Materials for Teaching Biological Sciences*. 2nd ed. McGraw Hill, 1962. 453p. \$7.95.

This is ■ new addition of a classic "materials and methods" book. The extensive additions in this the second, 1962 edition, place it head and shoulders above any other, and make it a necessity in the library of those who teach biology.

TORREY, THEODORE. *Morphogenesis of the Vertebrates*. Wiley, 1962. 600p. \$9.95.

This attempt to hybridize embryology and comparative anatomy results in ■ book that is neither, but perhaps the outcome of its use by teachers and students will be a more unified understanding of morphogenesis.

Social Science

ALBERTSON, MAURICE AND OTHERS. *New Frontiers for American Youth*. Public Affairs, 1962. 212p. \$4.50.

Maurice Albertson was responsible for a Congressional study that provided background recommendations for the development of the Peace Corps. This is an early planning document of considerable historical importance.

Text

LONGWELL, CHESTER, AND FLINT, R. F. *Introduction to Physical Geology*. Wiley, 1962. 2nd ed. 504p. \$7.95.

The second edition of a popular college text. Photographs are exceptionally well chosen; carefully worded definitions, and terse summaries help to develop clear concepts and to sharpen general understandings.

PEABODY *Journal* OF EDUCATION

SEPTEMBER • 1962
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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

VOLUME 40

SEPTEMBER, 1962

NUMBER 2

Editorial—

“The First One”

We got to commencement late, and had to find seats far back. I'm glad we did. It gave me a new glimpse of commencement. That summer graduating class was a big one, 464 members. The attendance suggested that each member of the class had caused an average of about five others to attend. Commencement can be a routine matter, but one who looks beneath its surface can see some gripping things, gripping and inspiring. One can find wonder and awe in the total of it.

Down on the lower level of the campus the classes stood in line, waiting for the signal to march. While they waited we took out a pencil and did a bit of calculation. Those graduates, bachelors, masters, and doctors, had studied a total of 2,469 college years. If college study is as potent as we believe what a world of beneficence is packed into those 2,469 years of study. They are of majestic significance, and a drama could be unfolded of each of the 464, standing there waiting for the signal to march.

Just in front of us sat a white-haired, somewhat heavy man, well past his three score years. By him sat a lady, obviously his wife. They simply couldn't sit still. Every few seconds they would twist about and look down the campus where the line stood at attention.

“I see better'n you do, Mommy. I'll look for him,” the man said.

Then suddenly the air was filled with music, something from Bach, fit and giving honor to the occasion.

“They’re coming, Mommy. I’ll watch for him.” They turned far enough about for me to get a good look at them. They were plain and rugged foreign-born people, and their eyes were shining. Bach never guessed how long that piece could be stretched out. It could accommodate a lot of marching. Suddenly, the man grabbed his wife by the arm. “There he comes, Mommy. There he is right yonder. That’s our boy. Look at him, Mommy.” Mommy was not articulate like her husband, but respiratory. She was breathing hard. “There he goes, Mommy, the first one of our family, the very first one.” Then his arm was about her and they were both quietly crying.

We Bow To Our Advertisers

We are proud of our advertisers. In a very good sense they are in the same business that we are. The books which they publish are sturdy mechanically and pleasing artistically. In those books are gathered the harvests of men’s scholarship and imagination. They bring to children the story of man, his adventures and achievements. Our advertisers present their books intelligently and in the best of manners.

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When You Need a Backbone

WARREN T. WHITE, JR.

Graduate Student, Peabody College

Probably the most unpleasant duty which falls upon the school administrator is that onerous chore of dismissing a teacher. In fact, the task can loom so odious in the mind of the administrator that, with little or no effort, he can find himself avoiding it altogether. After all, Miss Jones is the sole support of her aging mother. Or, Mrs. Brown has been married for a couple of years now, and maybe she will be starting a family soon and resigning of her own free will. Or, Mr. Smith is difficult to work with, but he is such a nice person outside of school.

While it would be difficult to prove, it is probable that every school administrator has indulged himself in the type of useless self-delusion mentioned above. It matters not whether the teacher involved be the one with the greatest number of years of service, or the first-year befuddled child fresh from teachers college.

It is the proposal of the writer to identify two sets of factors which are relevant to the problem of dismissing teachers: Those factors upon which a school principal can base a recommendation that a teacher's contract not be renewed, and some factors which have no actual bearing on the issue but often are considered to the detriment of all concerned.

In order to justify those factors in the first category above, it is necessary to operate on two basic assumptions: (1) Careful selection and assignment of teachers has been made. (2) The principal is an educational leader. A third assumption is necessary for the clarification of the reader, although it has no direct bearing upon the factors governing the renewal of the teacher's contract: Actions will be taken upon the recommendation of the principal, and the principal is the only rating officer involved. It is understood, of course, that the teacher always has the right of appeal to higher authorities.

The first factor upon which a school principal can base a recommendation that a teacher's contract not be renewed is the principal's own

professional attitude, professional approach to education, and professional integrity. If the principal is to have a firm foundation for all his decisions, he must approach the problem of education professionally; that is, he must keep uppermost in his mind that the basic purpose of public education in the United States is to assure to each child maximum intellectual development. If he be anything less than highly professional in all his dealings, if he be incapable of systematizing and verbalizing his philosophy of education, if he be unsure of the purposes undergirding public education and unknowledgeable of the processes to achieve those purposes, he is almost certainly predoomed; and the dismissal of a teacher could well be the arrow that would strike his Achilles' heel.

The second factor involves the principal as an educational leader. It is not the purpose of this paper to examine those many types of administrative leadership which have been so profuse in the professional literature for the past decade.¹ However, unless the principal can identify quality education, unless he is a competent supervisor, unless he knows methods for achieving quality education, he is not an educational leader regardless of how excellent he may be as a leader in some other field and regardless of how well he may care for the activity fund, construct class schedules, or see that the building and grounds are properly maintained.

The third factor is constant and *consistent* evaluation. This matter of evaluation of teachers and of teaching is extremely complicated and involved; however, for the purposes of this paper, only a few major ideas will be presented. In his role as the instructional leader in the school, the principal must constantly engage in the evaluation of the school staff. It is insufficient for such evaluation to consist of the way the principal "thinks" the teacher is operating. Nor can a school principal justify evaluating on the basis of rumors—whether those rumors come from students, parents, or other teachers.

Since the principal is evaluating an educational program and the implementation of that program, his evaluation can be consistent. Since he is interested in improving the educational program, his evaluation

¹ For an excellent discussion of educational leadership, the reader is referred to Chapter V of *The Practice of School Administration* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1958) by Herold C. Hunt and Paul R. Pierce, pp. 120-37.

is a continuing process. Since his major concern as an educational leader is the improvement of instruction, he is constantly gathering empirical evidence of quality. This empirical evidence *must* form the basis of his recommendation for each member of the staff—including those who must be dismissed.

Hand in hand with evaluation goes the fourth factor: in-service improvement. This process is not limited to the formal, planned in-service meetings of the faculty. Rather must it be extended to include all assistance which the principal gives to the teaching staff. In many instances more is accomplished in a ten-minute chat over a cup of coffee before school than could be accomplished in an hour conference in the principal's office. Of course, implicit in this type in-service work is the principal's having an intimate knowledge of what is happening in the classroom. It is the writer's experience that with proper planning and organization the principal can spend from one-third to one-half of the school day in classroom visitation.

Unfortunately, considerations which actually have no bearing on the problem often enter into the picture of dismissing a teacher. Probably the most prevalent of these is the personal feelings of the principal. That the principal should have no personal feelings toward the members of the teaching staff is not intended. But when a person accepts the title, he must also accept the concomitant responsibilities; and one of the main responsibilities is that he have a professional approach to education. Personalities cannot become a factor in judgment.

A second consideration which should have no bearing upon the dismissal of a teacher is the tenure law. The writer knows of no tenure law which does not provide for dismissal for "cause." And, surely, no school administrator worthy of the name is going to consider the dismissal of a teacher to whom he cannot show cause.

In summary, then, if the principal is professional in his approach to education, if he is truly an educational leader, if he is constantly and consistently evaluating the educational program, and if he has given all possible assistance to the teacher in question, he can approach the dismissing of a teacher with the same degree of equanimity with which he would approach any other delicate situation.

An Open Letter to Independent Schools

GRACE K. PRATT

**Chairman, Department of Early Childhood and
Elementary Education
Long Island University**

Independent schools have been busy with their own affairs. As schools of this decade, they have not assumed their full responsibility. Although deeply concerned about the needs, interests, capabilities, problems, and hopes of their own, can they not be accused of overlooking the vast contribution which they might make to public education? With the problems so great, the fullest pooling of all resources to solve the educational difficulties of all of our children would seem to be a primary imperative.

On the whole, independent schools have dedicated themselves to a purpose. Although the concern here is with those of an experimentalist orientation, the sense of purpose is keen in most non-public schools whether or not they are of such orientation. The independent experimentalist school is concerned with social awareness, individual achievement, and the fullest possible realization—however they may define it—of its children. Purpose is sharpened by a strong sense of commitment and a well-supported point of view. Such schools are flexible and try the new. They experiment and weigh the results carefully in terms of such over-all ends as they are willing to formulate.

Refuting great extremes for the most part, they did occasionally swing wildly on the pendulum from dogmatism to blatant permissiveness in the past, but this was neither frequent nor was it really irresponsible. Tested evidence was related to the ends of the individual and of the group. Teachers, through the years, have tried to understand the child and blocks to his effective interaction. Perhaps the individual's concerns did tend to dominate in past years, but the social was never forgotten. Daily living in and out of school was evidence. Most independent schools spent little time in formulating high sounding

terminology. Perhaps this was why they did not communicate more fully to a wider public. Rather than talk about democracy, they lived it.

During the early fifties such educational philosophers as Theodore Brameld, for instance, stated that we were living in a crisis culture.¹ Urgency of the need for goals and future-centeredness of orientation were pointed out. Most independent schools had goals and gave attention to the future, despite the vicissitudes of the fluctuating times.

Many of these schools were founded long enough ago to have a history. Their gifts to educational thought and practice have been many. Among them, the following may be cited: implementation of positive, democratic human relations carried out in classes as mixed as scholarships and other accommodations could make them; guided attention to individual needs and group interests; counseling and guidance about future careers, corequisite with experience programs geared to enable adolescents to try out their developing powers;² participation in celebration of activities involving the whole school; community participation, a natural outgrowth of a living concern for one's fellows; "core curricula," which usually had no such name but which flourished in an atmosphere of art studios, trips, laboratories, and careful insight into the continuing development of one's academic accomplishments whether related to Egypt, goldfish, or medieval knights; Father's Day, a day set aside especially, although both mothers and fathers came often to confer with teachers by regular appointment as well as in leisurely informality; communication, which flourished through inter-school visits and inter-continental mail as well as through class and school newspapers and group rhythmic representation; the support of such groups as the Child Study Association, the United Parents Association, local hospitals, and those of less fortunate circumstances in the school neighborhood; encouragement of the talented and of the low achiever. Independent Schools tried to survey the necessities requisite to the developing of living ethical relationships in a culture often disturbing, always challenging, and ever promising of the more desirable. The light of this purpose brightened much activity.

To the independent schools of experimentalist lineage, the "new"

¹ Theodore Brameld, *Patterns of Educational Philosophy*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, World Book Co., 1950, pp. 59-79.

² The writer participated in such a program, known as the Pre-professional course for Women at the Fieldston Ethical Culture School in 1933 and 1934.

of today is quite "old." In a broad approach to many unique individuals, the social surroundings have been important in all of their manifestations. Problem solving has always been a part of living. Reading has been "individualized" because each child is different, mathematics was "developmental," and horizons "higher," while children were related to the community and the community to the child. These things were done, but what COULD they have been doing?

Several suggestions are immediate in their urgency and will be future-centered in consequence. These may be summarized as imperatives for independent schools. Basic to each is the need for each school to assume whatever responsibility lies within its power. The administration and faculty must share the results of past experience and present hopes before it is too late. Writing by the staff members of such schools must be addressed to ALL teachers and administrators not just those immediately identifiable with the writer. Faculty members need to address a variety of national and neighborhood groups. Communication must be fostered with all types of teachers, administrators, and parents. Public school staff members need to confer with those of independent schools. Each will learn from the other. It might surprise independent school people to find out just how busy their public school contemporaries have been in their own way! Education, worthy and unworthy, is manifest in many forms and independent and public schools have much to share. Reciprocal relationships should foster mutual benefits.

"But, they will not understand," the administrators and teachers of independent schools will cry. The independent school staffs are obligated to speak so that they will be heard and understood. They must meet the others halfway. The seeking of insight into public school problems and then evaluating the results of independent school experience in the light of such problems should be a first step. Projection into public school situations will heighten the effectiveness of communication to them and should assist in de-cloistering independent school efforts by introducing them more fully into the glare of the public market place of ideas and practices. Difficulties in the public schools may be clarified and solutions implemented as the result of small test situations such as independent schools have had and should continue to foster. The step from the small test situation to the larger

pilot project, accompanied by full evaluation, is not such a giant step!

Now it is past time for those independent schools with a sense of responsibility for the present culture to accept the obligation for spreading the light of purposes formulated and consequences garnered. These are needed by those educators, who struggle to better their circumstances, to clarify means toward their ends, and to design a focus for their commitments. The culture of the future belongs to all children.

Furthermore, the future is beckoning. The public has finally heeded the plea of the fifties and speaks in terms of long-range planning and of what is to be. Structures are being erected, quality is being sought, and commitments and purposes are taking shape. Independent schools need to be aroused to spell out their findings, to experiment anew, and to publish the results. They should spread the wealth of their past labors. Help public schools take up the time lag between an independent wealthy past and the growing fruits which the public is beginning to gather. Independent schools, should be busy about the task of leading the way to a better future for all children.

Once independent schools functioned as a leading resource. They must recapture this role and play it for all children. Will tomorrow's world be able to say that education has become more full and more rich and that human life is achieving greater realization? This will come if independent schools will descend from their special heights and enter the broader community bringing and sharing their gifts with those others who, also, have richness to offer.

Let's All Sit Around the Fire

SOCRATES A. LAGIOS
Concord-Carlisle High School
Concord, Mass.

Jim, in *Huckleberry Finn*, makes a striking comment about Solomon's judgment which is applicable to the dilemma in education between the humanities and the sciences (natural, social, and behavioral).

"De 'spute warn't 'bout half a chile, de 'spute was 'bout a whole chile; en de man dat think he kin settle a 'spute 'bout a whole chile wid a half a chile doan know enough to come in out'n de rain. . . . En mine you, the real pint is down fuder—it's down deeper. It lays in the way Sollermun was raised."

Are we splitting the Sollermun of today when we describe some disciplines as the humanities and others as the sciences? Are we, by not resolving this philosophical cleavage, affecting the way we educate Sollermun more than the content matter of the various courses affect him? In order to have effective learning, the teacher tries to mold a sensitivity in Sollermun's thinking process to transfer and to relate the knowledge gained from one discipline to another; this, however, is a most difficult task if our basic philosophy on education puts the humanities and the sciences in two groups.

In the days of tribal education, all disciplines sat around the outer fringes of the circle of knowledge and shared the warmth of the flame of knowledge, as they searched for truth and beauty in their imaginations and in the world around them.

As mankind progressed, man moved from a circle to a one or a two way street. He looked at life from limited avenue and also tendered his own fire, jealously guarding it against any encroachment. The eighteenth century, England in particular, was a closed corporation of vested interests. In *Gulliver's Travels*, Jonathan Swift satirizes the Royal Academy. "He (the scientist) has been Eight Years upon a project for extracting Sun-beams out of Cucumbers." If there is a new approach to beauty and truth, the hallowed disciplines make it run the academic gauntlet until the new guild is strong enough to fend off all

blows, or it joins its senior brethren in baiting a still younger orientation. Probably the most conservative gathering known to man is a faculty meeting at a liberal arts college, with each professor wearing his discipline's sharp-edged bookends as protection.

Yes, Jim is correct. "De 'spute is 'bout a whole chile," and we should think and plan Sollermun's education in those terms. All disciplines, not only the humanities, espouse refinement, sensitivity, and a concern for the welfare of mankind. A poet hurts about something and strives to capture an emotion on paper as clearly as he can say that which he wishes to scream out but does not want people to hear. Is a scientist less of a humanist because he is in love with truth and beauty but must contain his subjective feelings in his objective quest for order and direction? If anything, the scientist is under more duress because he can not allow himself to say 'I love you' to his beloved search. The humanities should not be a closed corporation of certain disciplines, they should be a reflection of man's present state of progress; they should not be inflexible but flexible enough to welcome and incorporate within their purview any additional points of view enabling man to understand better himself and mankind.

Yes, education is a 'split chile.' Our means—aligning the humanities against the sciences—are determining our ends. It is time for all disciplines to sit around the fire once again. Through our philosophy on education and statements in our college catalogues, we have been telling Sollermun 'If you want to learn something about your fellow man and yourself, the humanities are for you; but if you want to become familiar with facts and objective research, the sciences are for you.' The elementary school, with one teacher offering most, if not all, of the subject matter to a certain group, is structured to give a complete picture. This trend, however, is altered in junior and senior high school, and in college where instructors teach various disciplines in isolation. Since the institutions of higher learning, in this anxious age of students thirsting for post-secondary school matriculation, set the tone for secondary school education, there might be merit if they realized their courses under one heading: The following courses embrace all the knowledge man has at his disposal to share with his fellow man. We believe a student should elect courses from each of the roots of the humanities—Literature, Natural Science, History. . . . This change

would be more than a semantic victory, especially if the colleges, during the freshman orientation period, presented a Gestalted picture of what constitutes the humanities; this purview might offer a framework of the forthcoming challenges. Then, in the senior year, after the students are deeply engrossed in their chosen disciplines and are more apt to overlook the sweep of the humanities because of their dedication to their academic orientation, a course, attempting to describe the philosophical tenets of the humanities, might refocus the students thinking to seeing their disciplines as part of the main-stream of all that constitutes human knowledge—the humanities.

If the colleges do this, the secondary schools will follow the pattern. Then and only then will we be accurately portraying the framework of education to Sollermun and ourselves. Each discipline's venture to explore truth and beauty will then be visualized in perspective; and Sollermun will have a firmer foundation from which he can approach a closer understanding of his most pressing concerns—Who am I? What am I? Where am I going?

The Scarecrow Press Inc. of New York, announces the publication of

CATALOGING MADE EASY; a manual of card forms demonstrating current trends in the cataloging of books, by A. Stan Rescoe, Assistant Professor, Peabody Library School.

This book originally went through two experimental printings and is now in its final form, for the first time, as a bound book.

It contains 186 card forms to illustrate each rule.

Teaching the Left-Handed Child

W. NEIL WILLIAMS
Elementary Schools
Boulder, Colorado

This article has been written to help classroom teachers make better provision for the left-handed student. Too many of us have been teaching primarily to the right-handed student, leaving the left-handed student to shift for himself. Some educators have forced the "lefty" to slope his paper as the right-handed students do. Without realizing it, these teachers are guilty of forcing the student to develop the "hook" position where the hand is dragged across the material just written.

How Many Left-handed Students? Various studies have indicated that up to 30% of the population tend to be left-handed. If everyone were allowed to use his more skillful hand it would seem that the percentage might possibly go even higher.

For many years the percentage of people using their left hand has been increasing. Should this trend continue a large percent of the student population will be left-handed.

What Causes Left-handedness? There is disagreement among the experts as to the causes of left-handedness. Lateral preference may be the result of heredity according to some authorities. Some claim that right-handedness goes back to ancient times when men fought with their right hand and used their left hand to shield the heart. Others claim that hand preference is due to ocular dominance, inequality of the blood supply reaching the brain, and even visceral distribution. Probably many people today are right-handed simply because they were not allowed to use their left hand.

To Change or Not to Change? Some parents and some educators believe that it is permissible to force the child to use his right hand. Evidently these advocates of a right-handed world believe that complete conformity is desirable and that such a change will not have an adverse effect upon the individual. Most authorities will agree that considerable damage accrues to the many children who are forced to use their less skillful hand.

Suggestions for the Teacher.

1. Make sure that the classroom has desks suitable for the left-handed student.
2. Left-handed scissors should be available if scissors are to be used.
3. If possible, the pencil sharpener should be in a location suitable for both left and right-handers.
4. Have the left-handers sit together to prevent them from copying the methods used by the right-handers, and so that they can more easily receive specific directions.
5. Do not encourage or force the left-handed student to use his right hand.
6. Do not attempt to teach the child to use both hands with equal skill.
7. The left-handed student's paper should be placed in a position approximately opposite from that of the right-hander.
8. In cursive writing the slope of the letters used by different children may vary from 45° left of vertical to about 45° right of vertical. The slope of each letter should be consistent. A left-handed student may prefer to slope his letters to the left or to the right. Just because a student is left-handed does not mean that he must slope his letters left. Many right-handed people slope their letters to the left.
9. All writing procedures common to the right-handed student can also be used by the left-handed student, except that most procedures are merely reversed.
10. Remember that each student is an individual. Regardless of the hand they use they will have their own preferences as to the amount of slope for their letters, direction of slope, position of paper, grip on writing instrument, position of hand which holds the paper, etc.
11. Guard against allowing the left-handed student to imitate procedures used by the right-handed student. Be careful that he does not slope his paper in the direction used by the right-hander. This is what causes the child to develop the "hook" position.

With proper instruction the left-handed child can write just as easily, just as swiftly, and just as legibly as the right-handed child.

The Rodd of Correction

ALAN GORDON

Woodward State Hospital-School

Woodward, Iowa

Beating children in school is not done as dispassionately as it used to be.

"And because the Rodd of Correction is an ordinance of God necessary sometymes to bee dispenced unto children . . . the Schoolemaster shall have full power to minister Correction . . . without respect of p'sons . . . no parent shall hinder."

This straightforward declaration was set forth at the free town of Dorchester in 1645. Irrefutably, the Rodd of Correction is divinely ordained. Does not the Bible tell us, "He that spareth his rod hateth his son; but he that loveth him chasteneth him betimes."? Again, "Foolishness is bound in the heart of the child; but the rod of correction shall drive it from him." And further, "Withhold not correction from the child, for if thou beatest him with the rod, he shall not die."

Schooling, in the colonial period, was a prerogative of the church. The end sought, as expressed in the initial public school legislation in Massachusetts in 1645, was ability to read the Holy Word. "It being one cheife project of ye ould deluder, Satan, to keepe men from the knowledge of ye Scriptures."

School text, such as they were, carried this religious motif. The *New England Primer* "taught millions to read, and not one to sin." Another text by John Cotton published in London in 1646 was entitled *Milk for Babes, Drawn out of the Breasts of both Testaments*.

Dogma, we must recall, centered about the problem of original sin and eternal damnation. Some notion of the Puritan attitude may be gleaned from a sermon of Jonathan Edwards, given some hundred years after the original settling of Massachusetts. "The God that holds you over the pit of hell, much as one holds a spider or some loathsome insect over the fire, abhors you . . . He looks upon you as worthy of nothing else but to be cast into the fire . . . You are ten thousand times more abominable in his sight than the most hateful, venomous serpent

is in ours.”

Obviously the colonial scholar, with his shining morning face, was a condemned sinner to start with, whose hope of salvation lay in pursuing scripture in the original so that he might evade the “Ould Deluder.” To this end schools were established under the aegis of a theocracy that was duty bound to save his soul by beating the devil out of him, if necessary.

“... the Schoolemaster shall have power to administer Correction . . . without respect of P’sons. . . .” Although they were doubtlessly insensible to the honor, those children whose spiritual salvation was thus assured were among the earliest recipients of the concepts of democracy in this authoritarian and non-democratic new world.

The early settlers were quite concerned about their prestige and prerogatives. Suffrage was based upon property. The lower orders were required to wait outside the church until their betters were seated. A student was ranked at the university according to the wealth and eminence of his father. In Massachusetts no “true gentleman” could be punished by whipping unless “the crime was very shameful and his course of life vicious and profligate.” In America a man’s place was subject to strict regulation.

Thus an equal sharing of the advantages concomitant with the Rodd of Correction, without regard to quality, was a mighty blow struck for democracy as well as for other more immediate benefits.

As the dominance of the church passed, so did the fear of hell-fire as retribution for resistance to punishment, and the tables began to be turned on the schoolmaster by the larger pupils. Sims recounts how one boy of eighteen, accustomed to being thrashed daily, finally revolted and threatened to split the master’s skull with his slate. His fellow pupils, with a convincing demonstration of solidarity, offered to aid him in the project. Horace Mann reports that there was a wave of insubordination in the second quarter of the nineteenth century, and nearly 400 schools were broken up by disciplinary problems. The major difficulty was that many of the pupils were too big for the schoolmaster to whip, and he had few other techniques for gaining their cooperation. With the advent of the Schoolma’am the situation became even less tenable. Today we find that the majority of whippings are administered to pupils in the primary grades, with the fourth being

the favorite. It would seem, then, that the physically strong are eliminated from the benefits of physical correction. Are no groups added to make up this deficit?

In 1889 a resolution for the abolition of corporal punishment in the Boston schools was defeated. The majority report maintained that given compulsory education and a large element of immigrant children from poor homes, the use of corporal punishment was unavoidable. "Give me your tired, your poor, your huddled masses yearning to breathe free, the wretched refuse of your teeming shores, send these, the homeless, tempest tossed to me . . ." and I'll beat the hell out of them.

". . . and no parent . . . shall hinder. . . ." According to common law the teacher stands in *loco parentis* to his pupils, and because of that relationship he must necessarily exercise authority over them. While the teacher is subordinate to the school board and must enforce and obey its regulations, it is understood that the board cannot frame rules that will cover all cases of "insubordination or acts of vicious tendency which the teacher is liable to encounter daily and hourly." Consequently, where there is no specific rule or regulation, the teacher is a free agent in the exercise of power and authority, except that he exceeds the limit of his authority when he causes lasting damage to the child, or acts from malice.

It has been held by the courts that the teacher "cannot be made penally responsible for errors of judgment but only for wickedness of purpose." In one instance the court found that the teacher had inflicted corporal punishment on one of her younger pupils. The marks on the child's body showed that some of them had been made with an instrument blunter than a switch. All of the marks, however, disappeared eventually. The court ruled there was no immoderation because there was no lasting damage.

Subsequently, in handing down a decision for the teacher, one judge rather plaintively pointed out that corporal punishment had been abolished in the armed services; that a master might not beat his servant or apprentice; nor might a man even moderately chastise his living helpmate. He found it difficult to explain why the schoolboy should be less sacred in the eyes of the law but regretfully concluded that such was the case.

As the church gradually lost control of public education, the purpose of education was no longer the attempt to outwit the "ould deluder, Satan." The argument in favor of the rod as an instrument of God lost some of its force, but schoolmasters were quick to find other equally valid ones. Immediate compliance and obedience developed an almost mystical quality.

Hiram Orcutt put the issue of obedience for the sake of obedience thusly: "The first step which a teacher must take, I do not mean in his moral education, but before he is prepared to enter that course, is to obtain the entire, unqualified submission of his school to his *authority*. . . . The subjection of the governed to the will of one man, in such a way that the expression of his will must be the final decision of every question, is the only government that will answer in the school or in the family. A government not of persuasion, not of reasons assigned, not of the will of the majority, but of the will of the one who presides." Hitler could not have put it better.

Despite such reasoned declarations, an increasing number of wayward and misguided persons came to abhor the concept of corporal punishment. It was done away with in the United States Navy in 1853. In 1866 General Daniel Sickles, with doubtful legality, forbade its use in North Carolina under the Reconstruction Act. Whipping as a legal penalty was forbidden in Kentucky in 1873. In the same year New Jersey attained the distinction of being the first, and so far the only, state to abolish corporal punishment in the schools. (France had already abolished it in schools by the middle of the 1830's.)

By 1870 *Barnard's American Journal* could list ten large cities which had at least adopted some sort of rule governing corporal punishment. The regulation in Boston appears typical. Corporal punishment should be avoided in all cases where good order could be preserved by other measures. There appeared an increasing requirement that records be kept, that girls be exempt, that it be used as a last resort, that parents' consent be obtained, and that it be administered in the presence of other teachers or the principal. It must be noted that reform, by and large, was instigated by sources outside the schoolhouse and was generally fought by what was coming to be termed the Educational Profession. Reform was initiated in the large cities and has advanced to the hinterlands with the speed of a tortoise.

How do we stand today? Recent newspaper clippings give some indication. An assistant Attorney General is quoted to the effect that teachers may impose "reasonable" corporal punishment on erring pupils under the law, and that proof of excessive force or malice must be shown before a teacher can be convicted for whipping a pupil.

The executive director of a Boys' club wrote to an editor expressing himself as an authority on juvenile delinquency. ". . . We have heard so much about 'security from fear' that we reason all fear is bad. The proper kind of fear is a great virtue—it is blood brother to respect, as is love. Fear plays a big role in the formation of our character."

A director of a well-known research organization, querying the youth of the nation, found that thirteen percent of the students were in favor of corporal punishment. "There are people who can't get anything but a slap through their thick skulls," reasoned one individual. Another said, "Teachers are people too. Sometimes they get so mad they have to hit somebody. Don't they have a right to display their anger along with the rest of the world?"

Thus we stand, in the middle of a century that has been exposed to Dewey, Freud, the Mental Hygiene Movement, the Four Freedoms, and Dachau.

Physical punishment exists in the public schools. Teachers practice it, educators favor it, parents condone it. True, it is less common today and the severity is controlled if only by the fear of inflicting lasting damage. It has been outlawed in one state and in several cities, but neither the majority of educators nor community leaders favor legal prohibition. The greatest amount of thrashing is reserved for the young and tender in their formative years. The lower strata of the socio-economic scale receive more physical chastisement than do children whose parents represent the power structure of the community.

The situation has undergone considerable change since Colonial times, and most of the change has been for the better. One aspect—the reason for the punishment—has worsened. In earlier days the reasons given bore some relation to the welfare of the child. Either his soul was being saved, or he was being taught to submit to authority. Today the benefits are seen to pertain to the teacher, or, at best, in a dim way, to the group. They do not, it seems, benefit the individual, with whom we are theoretically most concerned.

Give Me a Song for My Heart

LOUIS ADA WILSON
Wisconsin State College
Superior

Our joys and woes
To the last
Have roots and cues
From the past.

Children's problems are presented in their prose literature through the happenings of other boys and girls like themselves. This form of prose is used extensively by teachers in order to help children with problems. Also, these same problems are succinctly given in poetry. The right poem for the right child can be found. In the following context are suggested poems. Of their types there are many more.

“ — — — —
That bit of you,
You tucked away as time went by
Takes time to find.
— — — — ”¹

For every child that has problems a wise teacher can find poems that give him a sense of well being for solving his problems or knowledge that others have problems, too, and they are like himself. He does not stand alone, but with others.

The repetitive use of poems give children in degree the understanding and the feeling that the teacher desires. When some memorizing is done under conditions that children know they are not required to respond, yet the teacher does keep a record² of the poems learned, the responses are very gratifying; even pleasant surprises are often in store for the teacher and the children.

¹ Louis Ada Wilson, "College Students Write Children's Stories," *Peabody Journal of Education*, (Nov. 1953) Vol. 31, p. 131.

² Louis Ada Wilson, "Aids to Learning Poetry," *Elementary English*, (May, 1956) Vol. 33, pp. 284-288.

Memorized lines which offer cues to the child's problems are a boon to him. These verse lines help until deeper perception and the ability for wise discrimination develop. These lines of poetry, cues, for a child, have the same appreciative effect as do those memorized verse lines of beauty, love, etc.

A child's delight comes instantly when a revelation shines through the musical rhythm of a poem. The day was warm and it was April. The children were restless and a bit scrappy. It was understood, that when the teacher started quoting poetry, it was poetry time. The teacher recited, "The Day Before April."³ A curly-haired, sharp, brown-eyed boy, who with his step-brother shot their neighbors' pigeons from the roost said, "That poem ain't right." Teacher, "Oh?" Boy, "No, if God made the tune, he made the words, too." The teacher only smiled and nodded. Children have intelligent interpretation and deep concern; the former often needs opportunities for giving and the latter needs help for release.

What child hasn't been bothered by quarrels from which he is unable to release his feelings. Reading and discussion, even some memorizing of the poem, may release his feelings, such as "The Quarrel."⁴ The poem tells of a quarrel with one's brother and how simply it is settled by the spoken word. "Oh, come we can't go on all night." Quarreling often is a form of anger, yet anger arises from many instances. In "Selfish Puppy"⁵ the poet reveals that anger is quick, real, and sometimes justifiable. "And he becomes an angry pup," because someone had bothered his prized possession. The child may be released from a former angry experience which at the time he was inhibited. Thus, when the conscious mind reaches into or meets the subconscious, an emotional release may come: Relating experiences and memorizing certain verses, because of one's desire, with discussion, may help to reassure the child that anger is something not to be ashamed of. Yet, one thinks of the right thing to do. Besides anger there are other problems which children encounter.

³ Mary Carolyn Davies, "The Day Before April," in *Silver Pennies* by Blanche Jennings Thompson, p. 32. *Drums in Our Street* by the author, New York, Macmillan Co., 1927.

⁴ Courtesy J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, Pa., Eleanor Farjeon, "The Quarrel," "Over the Garden Wall," from *Eleanor Farjeon's Poems for Children*, 1951, p. 89.

⁵ Courtesy of K. B. Stains, Editor, *Penny-A-Thought*, Harry Selbaugh, "Selfish Puppy," Vol. 2, p. 22.

Many problems for the young children may arise from daily obligations and tasks: "I always put one rubber where the other one should be."⁶ Then there's, "Please, what is all this washing about?"⁷ The meal which isn't to one's liking in "Rice Pudding," A. A. Milne.⁸ The privilege of eating something that one has been forbidden. "We et out on the Porch - - - - - just et 'serves and things my ma don't 'low me too - - - - -," as well as, "The Runaway Boy" and "Impetuous Resolve,"⁹ give understanding.

Within the personal problems, especially for most older children, is the persistent urging. "Mother to Son,"¹⁰ a poem, if read, explained, and discussed, may give some relief or clarify, when the child hears with full meaning the poet say,

" - - - - I'se still climbing,
- - - - So, boy don't you turn back."

Then the poet points out how difficult times have been, where going has been hard and when there seemed no light to guide the way.

Along with these personal problems comes the current thinking that today's children should be helped to understand and know themselves. "- - - from the standpoint of our own thoughts and feelings we have some freedom to CHANGE and choose. - - - The schools encourage children to learn about everything in the world except the most important thing, themselves."¹¹ Then, why not let children learn that others have an inside self and an outside self and each is different from the other, using such poems as "My Inside Self,"¹² or as Jessie Orton Jones¹³ says,

⁶ Courtesy of G. P. Putnam's Sons, Dorothy Aldis, "Troubles, *Here, There and Everywhere*, N.Y., G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1927, p. 15.

⁷ Courtesy of Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass., John Drinkwater, "Washing," *More About Me*.

⁸ A. A. Milne, "Rice Pudding," *When We Were Very Young*, N.Y., E. P. Dutton and Company, 1924, pp. 48-51.

⁹ Courtesy Bobbs, Merrill Company, James Whitcomb Riley, "At Aunty's House," *Rhymes of Childhood*, N.Y., N.Y., Bobbs, Merrill Company, 1891, pp. 50, 79, and 89.

¹⁰ Courtesy Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., N.Y., Langston Hughes, "Mother to Son," *Selected Poems*, 1959.

¹¹ Courtesy Dr. Jersild, *Child Psychology*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall Inc., 1954, p. 5 and 1960 edition, p. 452.

¹² Rachel Field, "My Inside Self," *Poems*, N.Y., The Macmillan Co., 1957, p. 41.

¹³ Courtesy The Viking Press, Jessie Orton Jones, "VIII," *Secrets*, N.Y., The Viking Press, 1945.

"I am glad I'm who I am;
I like to be myself.
Even when I do the wrong thing,
I know I am the right person."

This should give rise to much discussion which in turn should lead into the related thought patterns, such as untold wishes, "A Wish" by Eleanor Farjeon¹⁴ and "My Dog."¹⁵ These may lead the child to reveal the secret that he likes to hide sometimes: There is a place where one can think about his problems. "I have a secret place to go."¹⁶

Along with the hidden wishes are the dreams which do not always have means for gratification nor someone to talk with about them. These are within poems presenting others' feelings that they too had wishes and dreams of childhood *as it should have been*, thus telling a child that all wishes and dreams have not been realized. Of these James Whitcomb Riley has many, also some child might need the understanding as in Riley's "A Parent Reprimand" in *The Joyous Childhood*, Bobbs-Merrill Company. "The Old Woman of the Road,"¹⁷ which is the lament of an old old woman who wanted a house so she might be in out of the wind and the cold. "Hold Fast Your Dreams," by Louise Driscoll,¹⁸ signifies the importance of desires and directs the child to hold to his particular dreams.

There are those poems that emphasize the need for each individual to help make his own dreams and wishes come true. Examples of these are: "Night" by Sara Teasdale,¹⁹ "Morning Song," and "Loving Me" by Alice Mary Jones,²⁰ "It Couldn't Be Done" by Edgar A. Guest,²¹ "Bag of Tools" by R. L. Sharpe.²² These help to know that one works,

¹⁴ Eleanor Farjeon, "A Wish," *Poems for Children*, Philadelphia, Pa., J. B. Lippincott Company, 1951, p. 165.

¹⁵ John Kendrick Bangs, "My Dog," *Foothills of Parnassus*, N.Y., The Macmillan Company.

¹⁶ Courtesy of Harper and Row Publishers, N.Y., Gwendolyn Brooks, "Keziah," *Bronzeville Boys and Girls*, 1956, p. 6.

¹⁷ Padraic Colum, "The Old Woman of the Road," *Wild Earth and Other Poems*, or Silver Pennies, J. B. Thompson, both published by Macmillan Company, N.Y.

¹⁸ Louise Driscoll, "Hold Fast Your Dreams," *Favorite Poems Old and New*, by Helen Ferris, N. Y., Doubleday and Company, 1957, p. 22.

¹⁹ Sara Teasdale, "Night," *Stars Tonight*, N.Y. Macmillan, 1930, p. 2.

²⁰ Mary Alice Jones, "Morning Song" and "Loving Me," *Prayers and Graces For a Small Child*, Chicago, Rand McNally and Company, 1955.

²¹ Edgar A. Guest, "It Couldn't Be Done," *Path to Home*, Chicago, Reilly and Lee Company, 1919.

²² R. L. Sharpe, "A Bag of Tools," *Best Loved Poems of American People* by Hazel Felleman, N.Y. Garden City Publishing Company, 1936, p. 99.

strives, has failures, yet moves along toward one's dreams.

In "There's Room at the Top" by Lilla T. Elder,²³ the analogous meanings of the phrases, come within the experiences and concepts of children.

" - - - -

Be sure you're honestly shod, boys;

- - - -

Respect well the rights of the road, boys,

- - - - "

With the teacher leading the discussion for children to interpret from their own experiences, the phrases can be understood. Children could be helped to understand and feel the meaning of striving for success.

Accepting realism is sometimes difficult for children. Phoebe Cary in "Suppose"²⁴ will perhaps give a clue to the sulky child. Gladys Baldwin York²⁵ relates the feeling of love and hope. Hope, she says, from the spoken word could become like a flag unfurled.

The trials of children are many. Some days are joyous while others are filled with troubles. Each child should feel and understand that,

When the day is done
In the grey of mist
Or blazes in sun,
All terrors and errors
Float away in the grey of mist
Or burn in rays of the sun.

²³ Courtesy Rand McNally, Chicago, Lilla T. Elders, "There's Room at the Top," *The Poetry Book* by Meriam Blanton Huber, et. al., V. 7. p. 130.

²⁴ Phoebe Cary, "Suppose," *Readings and Recitations*, N.Y., Edgar Werner and Company, 1908, No. 43, p. 152-153.

²⁵ Esther Baldwin York, "How Big Is One?," *Saturday Evening Post*, 218, 79, S22, '45.

Perspectives on Student Life

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Examinations and weather conditions keep students in check throughout the winter. From Thanksgiving until Easter professors and roommates receive the brunt of aggression. Comes Spring, scapegoats change. Warmth spells notoriety for the college and disaster for the dean. Social psychology may clarify perspectives on student life as held by four campus groups: the faculty, the student body, student government, and student champions.

Some organizations to which we belong give us a sense of satisfaction while others do not. Generally speaking, the more influential our group, the more likely we are to esteem our membership in it. On the college campus, the faculty are considered to be more influential than are students, and so self-esteem is comparatively higher in the faculty than in the student body.

Within influential groups there is a tendency to support the leadership, for leaders epitomize group standards. In non-influential groups, members tend to escape dissatisfaction by turning their backs on their leadership. Faculty, as influential, strive to emulate their leadership. Students, who are not influential *vis-a-vis* the faculty, tend to mimic the faculty rather than support their own student leadership. In their position of influence, faculty can further enhance their role-satisfaction by increasing the distance between themselves and students. The faculty, as any influential group, shows great creativity in proscribing the limits of its set. A "faculty" may include only staff members above the rank of instructor. Or there may be a special "graduate faculty." Or perhaps a "faculty senate" with restricted membership. In any case, by whatever means, faculty find it possible to perceive themselves as both influential and restricted with regard to the mass of students.

A second method for increasing the distance between faculty and students is that of enforced visibility. Faculty separate themselves from

the town by means of the gown. Students are separated from faculty by use of the sweater. The sweater, or a substitute uniform, distinguishes students from faculty. Titles—Dr., Prof., Dean—also encourage faculty visibility.

To recapitulate, influential groups cluster about their leadership and increase their self-respect by becoming more selective and more visible. The faculty traditionally show these dynamics. Potential groups, those not so influential, deny their own leadership and strive to reduce their self-dissatisfaction by breaking down the barriers of restriction and visibility of influential groups. If one must be unimportant, one prefers to be invisible with many associates . . .

Four Perspectives

Faculty. The faculty often prefers to see itself as a rare, visible and influential group in comparison with students. Students are viewed *en masse*—ID numbers facilitate this faculty impression. From the faculty viewpoint, student government leaders have erred—to their own disadvantage—by distinguishing themselves as leaders. The very visibility of student government places its self-esteem a step below that of the student body in the eyes of faculty. Student champions, (athletes, pranksters, cheer leaders, probationers), often distinguished by colorful dress, are considered rare birds from faculty perspective. As rare, visible and unimportant, student champions rank at the very bottom of the faculty's ladder of esteem. In short, from the faculty's viewpoint, student government is a slight fall, and activity or athletic leadership a downright plunge, from grace.

Student body. Students traditionally place the faculty atop the influence ladder. They also view themselves as the faculty views them—as an undifferentiated mass. To the average student, governmental responsibilities are burdens without rewards. He perceives student government as more influential than himself, but over-taxed and less satisfied than he. Athletes, cheerleaders, pranksters and probationers are among several special groups which may also be distinguished from the student body. Because these special groups receive faculty consideration, students tend to view them as more influential than the student body. The athletes' influence plus their visibility differentiate

them from the student body but retain them at the same level of respect as before! The campus hierarchy of esteem, viewed through students' eyes, rates the faculty at the top, the student body and its distinguished champions next, and student government below. Winning a student election is often tantamount to losing some respect from fellow-students and gaining nothing in the way of faculty respect.

Student government. Students who lead their fellows through the maze of campus politics achieve some success by reducing their distance from the faculty. Student government's platform consists of planks designed to drive wedges among the faculty. In this manner, an influential group (the faculty) may become internally divided and stratified and so allow for some progress by less influential groups (student groups). Student government strives to knock the faculty from its perch until it comes to rest at about the same level as that of the government leaders themselves. Student government hopes for a faculty-student government alliance which will control the student body and particularly student champions. Because student government accepts what other students call "governmental burdens" as opportunities to influence campus affairs, the government perceives its position as offering greater satisfaction than anonymity in the student body. Furthermore, student government views athletes as rare and visible threats, and so ranks the athlete along with the prankster and probationer at the boot of the hill of self-respect. Student government usually is the most adamant in demanding censure of student champions when the sap begins to flow.

Student champions. Notorious students—those of the "left-bank," the varsity sweater, on borrowed time—consider themselves much as their fellows consider them, visible and influential. They see themselves on a par with other students, often because of influential groups off-campus. Their awe of faculty is less than that of the student body, approximating that of student government. Who, they ask, more than we, can divide the faculty into quibbling groups and so provide for enhancement of student self-esteem? Faculty time is wonderfully spent deciding upon athletic schedules, punishments for pranksters and probationers, setting standards of dress and artistic performance and the like. But even as student champions encroach upon faculty status, they also narrow the gap between student government and faculty.

Student champions look to the student body for their support and to the faculty-student government coalition for their criticism.

Perspectives in Action

Observe these four groups ply their traditional perspectives. Faculty try to keep students at a respectful distance, perceiving the threat to faculty status which student government represents. Faculty find support for their perspective from the student body which burdens its leadership with trivia as a means of control. But faculty find the student body unwilling to drop its champions, whom faculty berate. Therefore, as a last resort, faculty are forced to coalesce with willing student government in order to keep student champions in their low place. Faculty seem unaware that students "red-dog" faculty defenses for unimaginable yardage, but after all, few faculty take an athletic viewpoint.

The student body enjoys above average role-satisfaction. True, the student body never places first, but it comes in second from all perspectives. From this body stem those students who enter government and those who become notorious. Government leaders hope to enhance themselves, but the general student body sees them as less well off. Would-be champions move over to accept the satisfaction which influence and visibility bring.

Student government performs the important function of keeping the faculty off-balance. Successful student government demands faculty attention. To give this attention, faculty suffer a drop in prestige and mingle with student leaders. The student body acknowledges this necessity by selecting rather than electing its leadership. Leaders who appeal to and appease the faculty improve the entire lot of the student body. Sometimes as a concession to faculty, sometimes as a matter of jealousy, student government often deprecates the status of student champions. Faculty tamper these attitudes such that student government rarely loses the support of its electorate for whom these champions are visibly important.

That it takes a high degree of intelligence to excel as a student champion, we must acknowledge. This group of specialists is capable of achieving distinction without loss of status! Athletes maintain their

status among students while gaining notoriety. More creativity may be found outside than within the classroom as student champions apply science, politics, and human relations to their tasks. Overnight a brick privy is built—and dedicated to the dean! Trucks careen to a stop on a major highway—caused by a make-believe campus tug-of-war! Hundreds of flash cards respond under all weather conditions! Millions of dollars change hands over the outcome of a game! Tight-ropes are walked between major departments without a student's flunking out of school! Here is true creativity, recognized by the student body, despised by the faculty and student government. Student champions understand these feelings directed toward them but find their satisfaction in the respect shown them by fellow-students. For many student champions, college-going is both a privilege and a satisfaction. Community perspective, beyond ivy walls, respects many student champions far more than it does the average faculty member.

One tactic which student champions continually use to confound all opposition is to run for student government! The faculty is confused by this maneuver, for it often occurs over the objections they have written as laws for student behavior. However, the sweater-with-the-scepter can be an effective student champion, can control student life, can assure a square deal for athletes and can keep the faculty down to earth. The "A"-student, football captain student council president—all rolled into one person—has the campus at his disposal, and he knows it . . .

Summary

Spring brings campus fever. Roommates become friends once more after winter cabin-fever passes. Professors are replaced upon their pedestals after a winter's work. And champions emerge from the student body. The spring-fling demands that student life be reviewed—from which of these perspectives?

The faculty's: that students should neither be seen nor heard.

The student body's: that students should be seen and not leave the herd.

Student government's: that students should be heard and not make scenes.

Or the student champion's: that students should be both scene and he(a)rd.

The Teacher and the System

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"I hear they have a good school system." Mrs. Johnson is concerned with the school system in East Pinecone because Mr. Johnson has been transferred to a branch of American Spaceships, Incorporated in the Pinecone area. Mrs. Swanson agrees not only that East Pinecone has a good school system but the *only* good system within four counties. For the moment let us pass over the evaluative criteria employed by Mrs. Johnson and Mrs. Swanson in determining the quality of a school system. The fact of the matter is that Mrs. Swanson's judgment is based on the highest authority, her sister-in-law, Mrs. Ronson, whose nephew attended East Pinecone Junior High School. Mrs. Johnson's authority is not quite as specifically identified—her opinion is based on what "they say," and it would obviously be rash for anyone to question what "they" say.

The point here, however, is that the school system represents a significant criterion in the mobile American family's selection of a place of residence. Mrs. Johnson is not satisfied with a newspaper ad's description of a house which is "near churches and schools"; she wants to make sure that the near-by school is part of a *good school system*. As a matter of fact, Mrs. Johnson's good-school-system criterion triumphs over Mr. Johnson's preference for a home which is as close as possible to the branch office of Amspsh, Inc. to which he has been assigned, to the extent that Mr. J. may have to commute some twenty to forty miles a day if Mrs. J's research has not convinced her of the superiority of the Pinecone schools, but rather that of the system in Spruceville.

Susan Smith is about to graduate from State Teachers College, where she achieved a fair degree of success as a promising member of the profession. Interview time is here—the bulletin-board announces the forthcoming visit to the campus of representatives of a dozen major and minor school systems in the area. "Please sign your name in the office if you wish to be considered for a position in any of the schools

listed below.” Sue and her friends have already decided, however, without benefit of interview, that only two of the systems are worthy of consideration—everybody knows that they have the best pay scales, and pay scales are obviously related to the general quality of school systems.

The Johnsons’ concern with the quality of their children’s education is, of course, an encouraging cultural phenomenon—tangible evidence of America’s alleged faith in education as a universal desideratum. Sue Smith’s preference for a school system offering a reasonably good pay scale is also very understandable and laudable. It may be true that Mrs. Johnson and Miss Smith have no other criteria available for decision-making but the reputation achieved by this or that system. It may be that there are valid bases upon which to classify school systems as good, bad, or indifferent. But there remains some cause for concern if not alarm in the identification of good education with good systems. However sound the evaluative criteria, the reliance on system may prove hazardous if it obscures differences between schools within systems, or differences between teachers within a given school.

There are excellent, dedicated teachers laboring, perhaps heroically, in systems generally classified as poor, just as there are teachers of moderate ability basking in the glow of highly-rated systems. One cannot, indeed should not, ignore the deservedly high rating accorded some schools and denied others. But this should not lead one to condone or condemn personnel or practices associated with either good or poor systems merely by virtue of such association. This is not a plea against the recognition of the essentially superior or inferior quality of a given school system, but a note of caution against the judgment of educational quality merely in terms of the reputation of a system.

Let us consider some of the factors which might have some bearing on Mrs. Johnson’s or Miss Smith’s decisions: 1. Every teacher in a good “system” is not necessarily a good teacher. Evidently, a system which has achieved a good reputation is not likely to employ sub-standard teaching personnel. Yet this fact does not automatically guarantee the highest quality in every teacher in the system. Even the most pains-taking and rigorous screening process for the employment of teachers is not infallible. Where supervisory practices are ineffectual, one cannot assume that the outstandingly promising teacher in 1955 is performing outstandingly in 1961! Each teacher’s success must be

judged in terms of her own merit rather than as a member of a particular group, an organization, a system. Being part of a "good system" may be a stimulus to professional improvement; but it does not in itself infuse the teacher with the qualities of greatness. 2. Every teacher in a weak system is not necessarily a poor teacher. Outstandingly promising teacher-candidates will not be attracted to a system whose reputation is poor. Yet from this fact one does not conclude that there are no outstanding teachers in the school system of lesser reputation.

In the many components making up what we call a school system, the classroom teacher is undoubtedly the most essential, the key to the effectiveness of the learning process, the focal point of the success or failure of the educational enterprise. In an age often, and justly, characterized as collectivist in thought and conformist in practice, it is easy to confuse the teacher with the system, to gauge the effectiveness of the individual teacher by the quality of the system. Yet, in a given classroom, *the teacher is the system!* The youngster in school may be unaware of the design of the curriculum, the nature of guidance services, the existence of special programs, the role of the administration, (my daughter, when in the third grade, referred to the principal as "the girl in the office"); but she is dramatically aware of what "teacher said."

For a teacher to be part of a good system, for one's son or daughter to attend a highly-rated school may be a comforting experience, yet an experience which might well lull one into a false sense of security, a feeling of complacency. Conformity to the standards of a school system, good or bad, may produce a kind of educational stagnation, inimical to progress. Does not the history of education in fact suggest that the great teachers were invariably non-conformists rather than conformists, leaders rather than followers? Was not revolt against the system, not adjustment to it, the impetus to greatness? Why do we hold in such high regard the names of Socrates, Quintilian, Alcuin, Abelard, Pestalozzi, Montessori, Dewey? Not because they represent the best educational thought and practice in the systems of their day, but because they rebelled against these systems: Socrates, piercing the armor of smug, intellectual complacency of his fellow Athenians; Quintilian, questioning the selfishly utilitarian motives of his fellow orators; Alcuin, prodding, albeit gently, the dormant mind of the Dark Ages; Abelard, battling his way out of the intellectual confines of his age;

Pestalozzi, pleading for the loving care rather than the harsh discipline of children; Montessori, releasing from the bondage of an authoritarian system the spontaneous, creative impulses of the child; and Dewey, lifting the eyes of the student from the page of the book to the experiential world about him.

Can one picture Socrates examining a bulletin-board for announcement of a lucrative professorial chair with guaranteed retirement benefits? Or Quintilian making a fast denarius ghost-writing for a Roman politician of questionable ethics? Or Alcuin refusing the call of Charlemagne because the latter's court school was not regionally accredited? Or Abelard citing the best authority as the final arbiter in a philosophical dispute? Or Pestalozzi rejecting the applications of children whose I.Q.'s were one sigma below the mean? Or Montessori saying "Why don't *they* do something about the slow learner?" while establishing a secure medical practice? Or Dewey concentrating on the technical problems of philosophy while casting a doubtful glance on the world of education?

It would be unrealistic to expect of every teacher the pedagogical skill of a Socrates or the intellectual drive of a Dewey; but it seems reasonable to suggest that every teacher, particularly the novice, should be more concerned with educational challenge than with educational conformity; being identified as a good teacher rather than being identified with a good system. It may be too much to demand of every new teacher a missionary zeal for reform, a burning desire to work in education's "under-developed areas"; but it would seem reasonable to expect some evidence of the spirit of the reformer, of the crusader, some genuine idealism, even reckless enthusiasm to blend with the realistic concern for financial and organizational security. Similarly, one might hope that parents anxious for quality in the education of their children would give as much thought to the improvement of the local system through cooperative efforts with school authorities as they do to the possibility of moving into an area already favored with a highly-regarded system. Prospective teachers and parents should be willing to appraise the quality of education not so much in terms of system-wide reputations, but in terms of the professional dedication and competence of individual teachers. For again, in a given grade, in a given school, in a given town, the teacher is, in essence, the system.

Parents View Their Intellectually Gifted Children

ARNOLD B. CHEYNEY
Ohio State University

What do parents of intellectually gifted think of their children? Do they recognize this ability? How do they tell? What do they do about it?

During the course of interviewing five hundred sets of parents whose families contained one or more high-ability off-spring (I.Q. 125 and above) definite trends were found in answer to the above queries. These individual interviews were held to inform the parents about the Canton (Ohio) High-Ability Program for elementary pupils which their children were eligible to enter.¹ Three specific questions were put to one hundred twenty-one interviewee families. The questions were as follows:

1. Did you realize *before* your child was given the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test that he had superior mental capability? If this was answered in the affirmative the second and third questions were asked.
2. What made you aware of this fact?
3. What have you done at home to foster this ability?

After the interviews were completed the notes were divided by school districts into three sections dependent upon where the parents resided in the city. (Canton is a metropolitan industrialized community of 113,631 population—1960 census—in northeastern Ohio) These divisions—low, middle, and upper socio-economic—were arrived at through consultation with pupil personnel administrators familiar with the complex social and economic structure of the city.

Table I breaks down by number and percent the parents recognizing and not recognizing the intellectual ability their child possess.

¹ Cheyney, Arnold B. "CHAP-Canton's High-Ability Program," *Education*, LXXXI (November, 1960), pp. 149-152.

TABLE I

PARENT AWARENESS OF INTELLECTUAL ABILITY OF THEIR
CHILDREN BEFORE STANFORD-BINET INTELLIGENCE TEST

	<i>Recognizing Ability</i>		<i>Not Recognizing Ability</i>		<i>Total</i>
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	
Upper Social— Economic	24	69%	11	31%	25
Middle Social— Economic	62	86%	10	14%	72
Lower Social— Economic	13	93%	1	7%	14
Total	99	82%	22	18%	121

In comparing the upper and lower socio-economic strata of parents in terms of ability to recognize intellectual capacity in their children it was ascertained that the parents of lower social-economic status found this much easier to do. A likely reason is that an outstanding intellect is much more obvious in this environment. A child in the upper socio-economic strata has more peers of his own ability and is therefore not so noticeable. This is indicated in the last column where the upper out-number the lower 25 to 14.

Another factor entering into the picture is not so obvious. As the interviews progressed there appeared to be a different set of modesty values present when answering this question or put another way the upper socio-economic parents as a group seemed more retiring when answering the question. Nevertheless, in all areas of the social-economic continuum the majority of parents (82%) realized their children were bright.

This brings us to the second question, "What made you aware that your child had superior mental capacity?"

Parents were able to tell through interests, school work, and a variety of methods that their children were above average mentality but the school was the determining factor in letting parents understand their children's capacities. The comments went along this vein: "He got straight A's," "grasps the regular school work readily," "needed no repetition," "second grade teacher informed us," "caught on in the

fifth grade," "reading quite well in second grade," "teacher told us she's done first," "third grade teacher told us."

Quite a few parents understood their children's capabilities through observing their reading practices. The comments followed this pattern: "likes research," "reads avidly" (this response given quite often), "reads classics—Dumas, non-fiction, history," "hereditary—father a fast reader," "caliber of books," "reads extensively."

Other parents recognized this giftedness because it showed up in areas aside from regular school work and reading: "aware before first grade because of rhythm, piano playing, singing," "gets music so fast he becomes bored," "learned foreign language at home" (in a monolingual family), "piano playing came quite easily," "interested in plants and bugs."

A series of miscellaneous items made up the other responses: "gave test found in a children's encyclopedia," "compared with other child," "performance excellent without effort," "conversation revolves around space and science," "curious," "inquisitive," "vocabulary used," "applies self hours to what he likes," "memorizes easily," "was doing older brother's and sister's homework first few years of school," "common sense," "retention excellent," "felt school was no challenge," "ease of comprehension," "asked several phases of the same question."

The third question logically followed, "What have you done at home to foster this ability?"

The most frequently given response was that encyclopedias were purchased for the children. Other methods given were, providing books, reading materials, and making use of the library—quite often a family endeavor. Music lessons were another outlet for interests. These ranged from piano and violin to saxophone and clarinet.

Some parents provided stimulus through lessons in conversational French or Spanish and encouraging art and typing lessons. Others enrolled their children in the Boy Scouts, Y.M.C.A., Soap-box Derby, and similar organizations.

Many parents considered traveling here and abroad methods by which they enriched their children's backgrounds. Helping with extra assignments, homework, family discussions and just plain "normal living" rounded out additional activities parents provided. A few expressed themselves as not doing anything in particular.

In the lower socio-economic area, as stated previously, the majority of those interviewed stated they recognized that their children were intellectually superior. Interestingly enough, this group professed to do less about the situation than the upper group. See Table II.

TABLE II
PARENT INSTIGATED HOME ENRICHMENT PROGRAMS

	<i>Home Enrichment</i>		<i>No Home Enrichment</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Upper Social— Economic	21	87.5%	3	12.5%
Middle Social— Economic	50	81%	12	19%
Lower Social— Economic	9	69%	4	31%
Total	80	81%	19	19%

Most parents of intellectually gifted children recognize that their children are considerably above average although parents in an upper socio-economic environment tend to miss this observation more often than parents in the lower socio-economic areas.

Parents of gifted children become aware of their children’s capacities through school personnel, reading habits, cultural and miscellaneous activities.

While most of the parents supplement their children’s school work with a variety of experiences and materials there appears to be noticeable evidence that the upper socio-economic level families do more. Perhaps this could be expected in the light that the more material wealth parents possess the more experiences and study materials they can offer their children. Many parents, however, were able to give their children educational and cultural experiences at little or no cost.

Parent observations of giftedness may present helpful evidence in identifying intellectually able children when coupled with standard testing procedures and teacher observations.

This study also points up the need to provide education for parents in the lower socio-economic areas which would enlighten them to the vast resources at their disposal for enriching their children’s lives.

Intellective and Language Factors Related to College Success

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The large number of student drop-outs and dismissals from college stands as a testimonial to the continued need for more information on the factors related to academic success. The growing number of college applicants has made this information even more necessary. If the college or university is to fulfill its obligation to those who enroll, and if students are to be saved the considerable loss of time, effort, and money which results from failure or from not having worked up to capacity, educators must continue their efforts to determine those factors which affect the level of academic achievement.

Many of the studies in this area have been concerned with the predictive value of such intellective factors as intelligence, high school grades, and rank in high school. Other studies have increased the list of examined variables to include such non-intellective factors as study skills, personality, interests, and family background.

Results of these studies have led to two general conclusions. It has been shown that the factors important to success are different from school to school and from curriculum to curriculum. It has also been demonstrated that there are no single explanations for either success or failure, that the degree of success is due to a complex of many factors each of which may either help or hinder the students.

Inherent in all predication studies is a basic fault. Predication studies which rely on correlations between certain variables and college grades assume that the *status quo* is unchangeable. The regression equations do not take into account the possibility of a student's potential changing in the course of his studies. The finality of such studies violates the truth that the achievement of any college student is largely a derivative of many elusive factors.

In an attempt to take this fact into account, other studies have utilized

a different approach to identify the factors related to college success. These studies have attempted to identify the factors influencing student achievement at a particular time. They have attempted to identify the factors which differentiate between students who receive high grades and students who receive low grades or fail. The value of such studies lies in the fact that the knowledge provided may be used by college administrators to modify existing circumstances so that the goals desired by the students and the colleges may be more efficiently reached. The present study utilized this second approach in an attempt to identify certain of the factors related to college achievement in a specific institution.¹

Problem. The purpose of this investigation was to determine the differences between highest and lowest ranking students in the day session of the School of Education of a large urban university with respect to certain intellectual and language factors. Specifically, this study attempted to determine the significant differences between highest and lowest ranking students in their ability as indicated by the following test scores or test score equivalents:

1. On the *California Test of Mental Maturity*: the total mental factors mental age, the language factors mental age, the non-language factors mental age, the memory score, the spatial relations score, the logical reasoning score, the numerical reasoning score, and the verbal concept score.

2. On the *Cooperative English Test, Form Y*: the total English score, the mechanics of expression score, the effectiveness of expression score, the vocabulary score, the speed of comprehension score, the level of comprehension score, and the reading comprehension score.

Subjects. The subjects participating in this investigation were sixty-four full-time students enrolled during the 1955-56 school year. Thirty-two subjects, eight from each college class, comprised the group of highest ranking students; and thirty-two subjects, eight from each class, comprised the group of lowest ranking students. The highest ranking and lowest ranking students were chosen on the basis of the first semester

¹ This study constituted one part of a more extensive investigation of selected characteristics of highest and lowest ranking college students which was completed under the mentorship of Dr. James J. Cribbin as part of the requirements for the Ph.D. degree in the Division of Educational Psychology, Measurements and Guidance at the School of Education of Fordham University.

grade-point averages. Highest and lowest ranking subjects were chosen randomly from the ten highest ranking and the ten lowest ranking students in each class.

Method. Each student in the study completed the *California Test of Mental Maturity* and the *Cooperative English Test, Form Y*. The test scores of the highest and lowest ranking subjects were tested for significance by the analysis of variance technique. The .01 level of confidence was accepted as the criterion of significance.

Summary of Results. Analysis of the data relative to the scores of the subjects on the *California Test of Mental Maturity* revealed the following:

The highest ranking students as a group were found to be significantly superior to the lowest ranking students as a group with respect to the *total mental factors mental age*. When the total mental factors mental age of each subject was converted into an I.Q., the mean I.Q. of the total highest ranking group was found to be 124, and the mean I.Q. of the lowest ranking group was found to be 107.

The highest ranking group was found to be significantly superior to the lowest ranking group with respect to the *language factors mental age*. The mean I.Q. of the total highest ranking subjects was found to be 139, and the mean I.Q. of the lowest ranking subjects was found to be 118.

The highest ranking group was found to be significantly superior to the lowest ranking group with respect to the *non-language factors mental age*. The mean I.Q. of the total highest ranking group was found to be 112, as compared to the mean I.Q. of the 99 for the total lowest ranking group.

Significant differences between the highest and lowest ranking groups were found also with respect to the following scores: the memory score, the spatial relations score, the logical reasoning score, the numerical reasoning score, and the verbal concepts score.

Analysis of the data relative to the scores of the subjects on the *Cooperative English Test* revealed the following:

The highest ranking group was found to be significantly superior to the lowest ranking group in abilities measured by all the scores of the *Cooperative English Test*. These included the following: the total English score, the mechanics of expression score, the effectiveness of

expression score, the vocabulary score, the speed of comprehension score, the level of comprehension score, and the reading comprehension score.

Conclusions. The results of the present study seem to indicate that the highest and lowest ranking students in the school under investigation are significantly different with respect to certain intellectual and language factors. These results seem to support the belief that colleges and universities should determine by means of standardized tests the level of intelligence of the students and their proficiency in reading ability and the use of English. Furthermore, adequate provisions in the form of courses in writing effectively, basic English grammar, and reading improvement should be made available to students with deficiencies in these areas.

It must be emphasized, however, that to identify poor English background or poor reading ability as a factor related to academic success is not to identify the cause of such disabilities. Any provision made by college administrators to meet problems in these language areas must include also the personnel and facilities necessary for doing a more comprehensive diagnosis of students and for providing the remediation determined to be necessary.

PEABODY BIMONTHLY BOOKNOTES

Selected Professional and Cultural Books for a Teacher's Library

SEPTEMBER, 1962

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Children's Literature

AVERY, KAY. *Saltwater Sam*. Washburn, 1962. 146p. \$3.25.

The scene is laid in a remote point off the coast of Maine; the story concerns the life of a boy, his mother, dead, adjusting to the problems of everyday living, directing himself into fields where his lively imagination and ambition lead him. Middle elementary readers will understand his problems and will enjoy his success as he becomes an outstanding person in his community.

BIXBY, WILLIAM. *McMurdo, Antarctica*. McKay, 1962. 184p. \$3.50.

A well written account of all the men from the many nations who have made voyages of discovery in Antarctica—all of them leaving from McMurdo Sound which has served as a base for all expeditions. This book covers all from the 1800's to the present. It contains a chronology of important Antarctic expeditions, as well as the text of the Antarctic Treaty.

BONZON, PAUL JACQUES. *Orphans of Samitra*. Criterion, 1962. 160p. \$3.50.

Left homeless and orphaned by an earthquake in the Greek village of Simitra Porphyras and his sister Mina receive a new home with a family in Holland. But Mina longs for sunny Greece, and one day she takes a walk and does not return. This

is the story of Porphyras's search across Europe for his beloved sister—search which takes years, but is filled with warmth, charm, and drama which will delight all.

BOWEN, ROBERT SIDNEY. *Bat Boy*. Lothrop, 1962. 191p. \$3.00.

When Sammy Slade tries out for the Panther ball team (for which he was bat boy the year before) he doesn't understand why relationships aren't the same. Only when he is sent to the minors with a coach who is rough on him does Sammy realize that it takes a whole team and lots of hard work for success. For junior high baseball fans.

BRIGHT, ROBERT. *Which Is Willy?* Doubleday, 1962. 30p. \$2.00.

An absolute joy with both text and illustration being superior. The author-illustrator has a nice sense of humor which he uses to advantage in telling his story, and incidentally to teach a lesson.

CAMPBELL, R. W. *Dragg Doll*. Funk & Wagnalls. 180p. \$2.95.

The harder Jet Johnson tries to make friends the more trouble he has, until he meets Sally Mitchell. Through her he is introduced to organized drag racing and the forming of a club which shows that true hot rodders know a great deal about cars and road courtesy as well. Jet also learns a

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lot about his parents and other human relationship.

CAMPBELL, SAM. *Calamity Jane*. Bobbs-Merrill, 1962. 126p. \$3.00.

This is another of Sam Campbell's entrancing nature stories. Calamity Jane is a coon, and the story follows her through a full year and the babyhood of her coon-lets. Children in grades three through eight will enjoy the authentic portrayal of coon life and thrill to the rather surprising happy ending.

CATHERALL, ARTHUR. *Young Baden Powell*. Roy, 1962. 136p. \$3.00.

Upper elementary boys interested in Scouting will do well to read this biography of this hero of the youth of Britain. Fourth of five brothers, from a recognized, but not moneyed family in England, he developed early a sense of improvisation, which lead finally to the Scouts. He lived to see Scouting spread throughout the world, and his coined word "jamboree" added to dictionaries.

CLARCK, ANN. *Paco's Miracle*. Bell, 1962. 151p. \$2.15.

Paco lived on a mountain with his guardian, "The Old One" until the "Old One" had to be taken to the hospital. Then the villagers adopted him and he learned to be happy and content with his new family away from the world of the mountain; until his animal friends call him. A tale of love and understanding for the intermediate age.

DELEEuw, CATEAU. *Proving Years*. Nelson, 1962. 158p. \$2.95.

Set in Ohio during Benjamin Harrison's Campaign of the War of 1812, this is the story of young Jason who, though too young to join the militia, volunteered to serve anyway. It seems that he had a calling to be a physician and though he is an illiterate pioneer boy the faith that a young girl has in him sets him on the path to become a doctor.

DORIAN, MARGUERITE. *Alligator's Toothache*. Lothrop, 1962. Unp. \$2.75.

This gay fantasy of the alligator's toothache will delight all young children, especially ages 4-8, or those who have experienced a visit to the dentist.

EPSTEIN, SAM AND BERYL. *First Book of Teaching Machines*. Watts, 1962. 49p. \$1.95.

A simple, yet very adequate little volume designed to explain the operation of teaching machines. Though planned as a book for juveniles, adults interested in the topic will also find it quite informative.

FRAZIER, NETA LOHNES. *One Long Picnic*. McKay, 1962. 179p. \$3.50.

Based on the diary of a young boy, the author tells of David Gale who made a trip to Oregon. David was dissatisfied that he was small and scholarly, but on the trip he learns that he can do all kinds of jobs and many exciting things happen—it is in fact, "one long picnic."

FRIBOURG, MARJORIE. *Port of Entry: USA*. Little, Brown, 1962. 240p. \$3.75.

This book is a collection of incidents and anecdotes brought together to illustrate the functions of the Customs Service. While it will make an informative supplement to the study of U. S. History, it is remarkable that actual events and people do not present a more dramatic piece of reading. However, the stories are true and the detail of the job is well described.

GAULT, WILLIAM. *Two Wheeled Thunder*. Dutton, 1962. 182p. \$2.95.

This action packed book about motorcycles and racing tells the story of two boys who have been friends until they discover the world of motorcycle racing and become fierce rivals, rather than just riding their own race. This will appeal to junior high boys who are interested in cars and racing.

GREEN, MARGARET. *Defender of the Constitution*. Messner, 1962. 192p. \$2.99.

The story of the unschooled boy from the mountain who became a leader in politics for the working man. Lincoln chose Johnson as his running mate, and from there Johnson became the only president ever tried for impeachment. This is an inspiring account of a statesman who rose from the ranks to serve his country.

HARKINS, PHILIP. *Argentine Road Race*. Morrow, 1962. 221p. \$2.75.

This is definitely a story for junior high hot-rodders. The locale is Argentina, but the story is of cars, races and racers. There is plenty of tenseness and well sustained suspense.

HAYWOOD, CAROLYN. *Snowbound with Betsy*. Morrow, 1962. 189p. \$3.50.

Carolyn Haywood has done it again. Another Betsy story and Betsy again her vivid self, with sister Star, Cocker Spaniel Thumpy, all big and interesting as life. When Betsy's father found Neddie, Susan, and their mother in the blizzard he brought them home, and they all had a gala time. Good for grades three through seven.

HILL, RUBEN AND DUVAL AND MIL-
LIS, EVELYN. *When You Marry*. Heath, 1962. 337p. \$3.68.

Specific information of changes in our culture and society are spelled out for the adolescent, especially as these are relevant to problems of emotional maturity, dating, mate selection, marital adjustment, and family living. This functional text has a lively style incorporating cartoons and self-check tests which help to generate interest and capture attention.

HIRSHBERG, AL. *From Sandlots to League President*. Messner, 1962. 191p. \$2.99.

For the high school baseball addict, this biography will make a fine from rags to riches study, following young Joe from the sandlots of San Francisco through his boy wonder days with the Senators and on to glory with the Red Sox. There is also an unusual glimpse of the 17 year old Ted Williams. Fine reading.

HOGAN, INEZ. *Twin Otters and the Indian*. Dutton, 1962. 41p. \$2.25.

An imaginative nature story built around the growing up period of two otters, written for primary reading. Lovely black and white drawings by the author, occur throughout the book, and give the young child a vivid picture of daily activities of this particular family of animals. The plot, however is highly imaginative.

HOGG, GARRY. *Deep Down*. Criterion, 1962. 160p. \$3.50.

Of special interest to youth interested in exploring caves, this report on light adventure will both entertain and provide useful information.

HOLLAND, JOYCE. *First Day at School*. Denison, 1962. Unp. \$2.75.

Meeting the problem of the child leaving home for the first day to spend time with strangers at school, is handled here in story form which will help the hesitating child to see how it all works out. David has decided he did not want to go to school, and was very unhappy at first. Little by little he relaxed and was really surprised to find out how nice it all was. Colorful illustrations. Excellent format.

HOPE, ANTHONY. *Prisoner of Zenda*. Dutton, 1962. 182p. \$3.25.

A delightful adventure which transports the reader with Rudolf Rassendyll from his humdrum every day life to the many events that await him in the forest of Zenda. The beautiful Princess Flavia, the villain Black Micheal, and our hero Rudolf will thrill all readers of this known classic from 12 up.

HOYT, EDWIN. *Grover Cleveland*. Reilly & Lee, 1962. 170p. \$3.95.

A very well written and to the point biography of Grover Cleveland, one of our presidents who has seldom been made to seem real, in history or other writings. For the Junior High group this book will be a recommended addition for the information it contains and for the political cartoons which are included.

HUNT, MABEL LEIGH. *Johnny Up and Johnny Down*. Lippincott, 1962. 94p. \$3.95.

Two cousins named Johnny had interesting Quaker Backgrounds. They also had a different approach towards life. This humorous story tells of their experiences, and will provide valuable background reading in social studies and in the language arts for the second and third grade readers. Well illustrated in two-tone full page drawings as well as in black and white.

IRVING, ROBERT. *Volcanoes and Earthquakes*. Knopf, 1962. 123p. \$3.00.

A distinguished member of a series of in-

formational books for children 10-14. Appropriate drawings and photographs supplement sound scientific explanations of the phenomena under discussion.

ISH-KISHOR, JUDITH. *Tales from the Wise Men of Israel*. Lippincott, 1962. 192p. \$4.00.

Here are folk tales of the Jewish people, some from Talmudic sources, others based on the Jewish people's adventures and misadventures during the years of Dispersion. All of these tales are infused with high courage, keen wit, wholesome humor, and moral high purpose. As Harry Golden says in the introduction Miss Ish-Kishor has prepared a gift for both young and old, one wrought with great love.

JANNES, ELLY. *Nomads of the North*. Macmillan, 1962. Unp. \$3.15.

Superior photography is used here to give authentic background in this study of the Lapp way of life. A brief paragraph of text accompanies the picture by way of explaining it. Any reader will be charmed with the book, and yet because of its make up and arrangement elementary readers can enjoy it thoroughly.

LADD, ELIZABETH. *A Mystery for Meg*. Morrow, 1962. 189p. \$2.75.

Meg Ewell lived with her uncle and aunt because her parents had been killed in an automobile accident when she was only a baby. As a girl of twelve she adored her big brother who worked at various jobs. One summer he let Meg go with him to a house he and another man were repairing on an island near Maine. That is where the mystery was. The story is absorbing for children about 8 to 12.

LASEK, M. *Questa E Roma*. Macmillan, 1962. Unp. \$3.20.

This is an excellent book to use in the elementary school where a distinguished picture book with Italian text is needed. The gay illustrations of Rome and the lively text make the book one children who can read Italian will find most enjoyable.

LEXAU, JOAN. *Trouble with Terry*. Dial, 1962. 148p. \$2.94.

Terry could never do anything right; she felt her friends were ignoring her, and that

her mother misunderstood her, it seemed everything she did ended in disaster. Finally Terry realized the truth—that she has responsibilities to other people, and from this point deeper meanings grow as Terry begins to grow up. Junior high girls.

LOMASK, MILTON. *Andy Johnson*. Ariel, 1962. 180p. \$2.95.

In this biography of Andrew Johnson the author covers his career from his beginning as a tailor's apprentice to gain a trade and education to the period in Washington when he was tried for impeachment because he tried to carry out some of Lincoln's reconstruction measures. This book sheds new light on the often misunderstood figure of Johnson.

LOW, JOSEPH. *Adams Book of Odd Creatures*. Atheneum, 1962. Unp. \$3.50.

Yet, another alphabet book, this one is based on the ideas that our ancestors came to the end of a long day by naming 26 odd animals with 26 odd names. Each creature receives a couplet, a name to match the letter, and a strange cartoon, in sophisticated style. Because of the word difficulty the book will need to be read to the primary child.

MACBEAN, DILLA. *Picture Book Dictionary*. Children's Press, 1962. Unp. \$2.50.

Picture dictionaries have been very important to beginning readers in our work. They are used over and over with much satisfaction. This book is very attractive and should prove popular. A sturdy format, lovely interesting pictures, well balanced page arrangement, large clear type, and just the size of book for a child to hold in his hand. Highly recommended.

MACGREGOR, HASTIE, ROY. *Pope John XXIII*. Criterion, 1962. 126p. \$3.00.

A vividly written biography of the boy who rose from an Italian peasant to become Pope. It clearly tells of his life and schooling and his constant struggle against poverty and social injustice. Teen agers from twelve to fifteen will enjoy this.

MCCORMICK, WILFRED. *Rebel with a Glove*. McKay, 1962. 145p. \$3.25.

This is another Broc Burnett baseball story. Like the others it is an intense story of a hard fighting team, and involves problems of honest sportsmanship even against unscrupulous players and coach. Especially suitable for junior high school baseball fans.

MARIANA. *Miss Flora McFlimsey's Valentine*. Lothrop, 1962. Unp. \$2.20.

This new title in the Miss Flora McFlimsey series describes the valentines she makes for her friends. Children will be delighted with both the whimsical illustrations, and the gentleness of the story.

MARSH, ROY. *Kang*. McRae Smith, 1962. 188p. \$2.95.

A dog story of the North, with plenty of nature lore in tense situations. The winning of the affection and loyalty of the more than half wild puppy that was almost a wolf cub by Sam is a tale of interest to all junior high school dog lovers.

MARTINI, TERI. *What Can A Frog Do?* Reilly & Lee, 1962. Unp. \$2.50.

An amusing experience of a boy and a frog, and what happens when the frog was brought into the house. Edited for beginning readers, it will be an incentive to those having difficulty in reading because of its amusing situations, its large clear type, brief sentence structure and the lively full page illustrations. A nice contribution in an important area.

MAULE, TEX. *Shortstop*. McKay, 1962. 180p. \$3.50.

Jim Beatty is a young collegian who begins his year with the New York Yankees. He soon finds out that it takes many things to make a professional ball player and when he is sent back to the minors due to a batting slump, Jim uses discipline to work his way back to the Yankees.

MEEKS, ESTER. *Jeff and Mr. James Pond*. Lothrop, 1962. Unp. \$2.75.

How nature always has a plan for maintaining the balance of life is revealed in this fascinating story of how Mr. James keeps his fish pond clean and sparkling. A little bit of green scum to feed a few little water

fleas. A few little water fleas to feed a number of minnows. And a number of minnows to feed just enough bluegills. And just enough bluegills for good friends to catch.

MELCHER, MARGUERITE. *Why Don't You Draw a Dog?* Little, Brown, 1962. Unp. \$2.95.

Markee is a very young girl, but she loves to draw. She is so young that her pictures do not please any one but herself. But she continues to draw, and this book is made up of her drawings, with a brief large type text along with each picture explaining how it happens. Preschool and primary.

MONTGOMERY, RUTHERFORD. *Snowman*. Duell, Sloan, 1962. 129p. \$3.50

An eighty dollar, eight year old farm house along with patience and hard work gave Harry deLayer his dream of owning a jumping champion. This is the true story of snowman and his incredible rags to riches story which will delight all horse lovers no matter their ages.

MORGAN, MARY. *Rainbow for Susan*. Abelard, 1962. 159p. \$3.00.

Susan O'Day was Irish and a Southerner, but she had many surprises in store when she went to spend the summer with her Uncle Dooley in New York. Dooley's farm turned out to be the biggest surprise of all for it was a goat farm. How Susan learns to accept all of this and the turn about ending makes interesting reading for young people who enjoy stories about animals.

MORRISON, STRANG. *The Monach Light*. St. Martin's Press, 1962. 250p. \$3.25.

This is a fast action story of mystery, danger and sailing yachts. There are foreign spies near a missile range, a storm, night prowling, deliberate deceit, lighthouse towers, cut ropes, pistols and what have you. The idea of three girls in one yacht and three boys in the other foregathering at will and sharing dangers may help to further unsettle some teen-agers, but the interest is intense for high school students who love adventure.

NEELY, HENRY. *Triangles*. Crowell, 1962. 144p. \$2.75.

This lecturer for the American Museums, has given here in as brief and chatty a manner as possible an introduction to trigonometry which a junior high school student can enjoy. Each concept, from surveying problems along the Nile, through coastal navigation, to the planning of a Little League baseball diamond, is explained and triangrammed. This will make fine enrichment material for gifted students.

NELSON, MARG. *Girl Called Chris*. Ariel, 1962. 184p. \$2.95.

After Graduation Chris Ralston felt sorry for herself—she was sixteen, too tall, didn't have a boy friend, and hadn't won the scholarship she needed. Against her family's wishes she takes a job and with her character, hard work, and intelligence she wins the scholarship and the boy who didn't really matter.

NEURATH, MARIE. *How Plants Grow*. Sterling, 1962. 36p.

Well illustrated, though not elaborately so. The text is good.

NEWMAN, JOSEPH. *One Summer Day*. World Pub., 1962. \$2.50.

This is an absolutely first rate volume of lighthearted poetry, guaranteed to charm both children and grown ups. The illustrations deserve special commendation.

OETTING, RAE. *Father Nature Takes a Tour*. Denison, 1962. Unp. \$3.00.

An imaginative nature story, full of information which primary grades will use in their various nature studies. The author has wisely kept the information real and well set up as the purpose of the book. Colorful illustrations add much pleasure to the reading. Page balance of picture and text is good; large clear type and careful editing makes this a nice contribution for the young child.

ORLOB, HELEN. *Navy Style*. Nelson, 1962. 191p. \$2.95.

Here are 12 stories of navy men and ships which span the period from the Revolution to the twentieth century. They are presented for junior high readers and all of them, no matter whether the victory ended in victory or defeat, they were undertaken in true Navy style.

PALAZZO, TONY. *Four Musicians*. Doubleday, 1962. Unp.

Exciting colorful pictures by this popular illustrator, will charm primary readers as they read and re-read this familiar fairy tale. We could only wish the book had a sturdier format, to stand up to the handling it might have.

PALAZZO, TONY. *The Ugly Duckling*. Doubleday, 1962. Unp. Nursery Classic.

Tony Palazzo has taken a little more liberty than usual in the adaptation of this story. As usual, his illustrations are not out of this world, but young children are enthralled by both story and pictures.

PARISH, PEGGY. *Good Hunting Little Indian*. Young, Scott, 1962. Unp. \$3.00.

A picture book which beginning readers will enjoy and will soon begin to read for themselves. Colorful pictures on every page carry the story along and add much to the enjoyment of the book. The slant is toward a modern American Indian.

PARKER, RICHARD. *Almost Lost*. Nelson, 1962. 107p. \$2.95.

A British story of a ten year old girl and her younger brother, as they run away, trying to reach their grandmother's house in a village not too far away. They try to keep their real story a secret, and thereby make many difficulties for themselves. Finally, as radio and television pick up the news, they are discovered and all ends well. Elementary reading.

PASCAL, NANCY. *No More Good Byes*. Westminster, 1962. 191p. \$2.95.

When sixteen year old Bonnie Irwin leaves her mother and brothers to live with her grandfather she finds that it doesn't take long to become used to his mansion and money. In fact, she begins to enjoy this way of life and to love her grandfather—everything is fine until her mother moves into town and she learns what a snob her grandfather can be.

PAUST, GIL. *How a Jet Flies*. Sterling, 1962. 72p. \$2.84.

An interesting well-bound pictorially illustrated book for intermediate and junior high youth.

PEARE, CATHERINE. *FDR Story*. Crowell, 245p. \$3.75.

This is a biography of Franklin D. Roosevelt for young readers. It is a rather well documented and complete account showing much skill in story telling. An appealing book which attempts to paint a "true" picture.

PETERSON, BETTINA. *Washington Is for You*. Washburn, 1962. 63p. \$2.95.

Toby's father had to make a business trip to Washington just at the Easter Holiday, so he decided to take the family along. Toby's mother planned all the sight seeing she and the children could do while they were there. This story tells about the things they saw on this trip in a brief interesting account which middle elementary readers will enjoy. Very attractive black and white illustrations.

PETERSON, RUSSELL. *Expedition*. Doubleday, 1962. 56p. \$2.95.

With the subtitle, "An exciting search for rare animals in the jungles and rain forests of New Guinea," this account is a sincere attempt to simplify a complex program for the understanding of an elementary reader. It must, of course, appear sketchy, and the actual facts seem to be chosen at random. The colorful illustrations are by the author and are very exciting and glamorous.

PHELAN, MARY KAY. *White House: A Book To Begin On*. Holt, 1962. Unp. \$2.50.

An ideal introduction to this famous house, this account is well written for early elementary social studies. Illustrated with interesting, humorous, two-toned pictures, which accompany the brief text, the book should be very popular. Interest at this time is very high in accounts of government people as well as buildings, and we are happy to see such a contribution at this level.

PILKINGTON, ROGER. *Nepomuk of the River*. St. Martin's, 1962. 244p. \$3.25.

This mystery deals with the search for a valuable carving, only recently found yet actually 300 years old. The scene is laid

in Bavaria. The characters are three interesting British teen age people, and a friend who is familiar with the area. An absorbing story filled with historical incidents, excellent local color, topped off with suspense and excitement. Upper elementary.

PILKINGTON, SAM. *Romance of Wilson Creek*. Dorrance, 1962. 111p. \$3.00.

Missouri during the Civil War is the setting for this brief novel about the love at first sight romance of Lt. Micheal Blade, csa and Nancy Sheppard. The action covers several months during which they fall in love amid the dangers of war; Micheal is wounded; his convalescence—up to the final climax—a Christmas wedding, after which he carries his bride to his home in Atlanta.

PIZER, LT. COLONEL. *Rockets, Missiles, and Space*. Lippincott, 1962. 160p. \$3.95.

Taking the fact that man can no longer say "the sky's the limit," the author presents an up to the minute look at space travel. He begins 2000 years ago with China's rocketry, and arriving soon at 1957 and Sputnik I, he examines such questions as: How does a satellite get into orbit? What are the best fuels? Which planets are likely to be explored soon? The book is plentifully illustrated with photographs and drawings.

POLLAND, MADELINE. *Reborn the Proud*. Holt, Rhinehart, 1962. 173p. \$3.00.

Reborn is the son of a Danish chieftan who plunders the Irish villages and churches in the days of the Vikings. As a 12 year old boy he thinks of his father as a king, and is allowed to keep as a slave a girl of his own age, who was captured in one of the rapids. After his father's death his pride and arrogance lead to trouble. By the help of the girl, and Ragner, he is barely saved from disaster.

PRECHTL, LOUISE. *Come Along to Thailand*. Denison, 1962. 148p. \$3.95.

Written with the hope of building sympathetic understanding and respect for a remote area, this account is fascinating. Any reader will enjoy it, but upper elementary students will find it charming and informa-

tive as well. The points of interest in the country and in its history are well chosen for this age group, and the daily activities of living as described will broaden their experiences. Recommended.

PRICE, OLIVE. *Mystery of the Sunken City*. Westminster, 1962. 140p. \$2.95.

Elementary readers with a liking for underwater adventure, will find a thrilling experience here as Jeffory discovers what he thinks is a phantom ship. Jeffory is with a group of scientists, who have come to explore a sunken city. Many exciting items appear, an old-fashioned spy-glass, a pirate chest, a sea-going laboratory and so on.

PRIDY, FRANCES. *Social Swim*. Westminster, 1962. 173p. \$2.95.

What does a teenager do when a family gets a swimming pool and her crowd takes it over as though it were a country club? How does she sort the spongers from the true friends? How Gretchen Ramsey goes about it makes enjoyable reading as well as a summer of fun, work, and romance for her. Teen age girls will find SOCIAL SWIM of interest.

PRINGLE, PATRICK. *Young Livingstone*. Roy, 1962. 126p. \$3.00.

A boy's early resolve to let nothing stand in the way of his dreams is well shown in this account of an ambitious boy in an impoverished family. He educated himself largely as a boy, his books propped up near by while he worked in a cotton mill. This story covers Livingstone's boyhood and youth, which period he never regretted for all it was hard; he was grateful for his hardy training.

RANDALL, RUTH. *I Varina*. Little, Brown, 1962. 244p. \$3.75.

An entertaining and well written biography of Varina Howell, bride of Jefferson Davis, who was destined to become First Lady of the South during the Civil War. The love and happiness and the tragedies of her marriage bring to life a remarkable woman about whom little has been written in the pages of history.

REED, PHILIP. *Seven Voyages of Sinbad the Sailor*. Atheneum, 1962. 57p. \$3.25.

A beautiful edition of the old familiar classic, designed and illustrated by Philip Reed, master printer and wood engraver.

REIDEL, MARLENE. *Gabriel and His Magic*. Lippincott, 1962. unpaginated. \$3.50.

Gabriel found a magic wand a magician had dropped. Children from ages 4 to 8 will be delighted with the funny things he did. Most of the readers will agree that it was just as well that Gabriel did not keep the wand.

RUSSELL, SOLVEIG. *About Fruit*. Melmont, 1962. 48p. \$2.50.

This study of certain common fruits is well done for middle elementary readers, and will find much important use. Beautiful illustrations in color as well as in black and white, add information from that angle, and the text is written in a highly readable style, well edited to this level. The sturdy format, size of the book, and length of the discussion are all fine for our use.

RUSSELL, SOLVEIG. *This Home for Me*. Broadman, 1962. unpaginated. \$1.00.

Beautiful illustrations emphasize the account of about fifteen different animals and the typical home of each. Basic scientific stories, brief and primary in treatment, they will prove useful and popular with second grade readers everywhere.

SCHIRMANN, LI. *Golden Slippers*. Abelard, 1962. 150p. \$3.00.

This is an amusing story about a little Swiss-English girl who has a real talent for making friends. After the death of her mother, Miranda's aunt comes to Damascus to live and she dislikes everything. Miranda delights in every experience, learns to live without her mother and grows up. The story has many adult overtones and will be enjoyed by girls ten and up.

SCHLEIN, MIRIAM. *City Boy Country Boy*. Children's Press, 1962. Unpaginated. \$2.50.

Colorful pictures on every page, accompanied by brief line text set forth for the beginning reader, interesting observations in the lives of boys in each of these situations. This is a new edition of a title which has already proved its value in reading groups as well as primary social studies.

SEVERN, BILL. *Magic with Paper*. McKay, 1962. 144p. \$3.50.

Nothing like a new book on magic to an elementary reader, and this title, dealing as it does with properties lying about just at hand, will fascinate many an amateur performer. It is illustrated here and there with black and white drawings, and the specifications are well set up for the young reader. Lively and up-to-date. Recommended.

SAVORY, PHYLLIS. *Cong Fireside Tales*. Hastings, 1962. 88p. \$3.50.

These are folk tales with much of the barbarism left in. They are reminders of the Uncle Remus stories, and will add to the repertoire of a story teller for children.

SCRIMSHER, LILA. *Pumpkin Flood at Harper's Ferry*. Reilly and Lee, 1962. 94p. \$3.00.

Based upon a true incident at Harper's Ferry in 1753, this story tells about an orphan Quaker boy and his life in the Upper Potomac wilderness. The happenings are natural, the adventures not overdone, and the quiet spirit of the Quaker is felt throughout. The story is brief enough, also, to make satisfactory early elementary reading.

SHANNON, TERRY. *Dog Team for Ongluk*. Melmont, 1962. 31p. \$2.50.

An excellent interpretation of life in the far North Country, edited for early social studies. Delightful illustrations appear on every page, enriching the story with colorful detail . . . every child will love it. A fine contribution emphasizing as it does details of daily living which the young child can appreciate.

SHERLOCK, P. M. *Three Finger Jack's Treasure*. St. Martin's, 1962. 176p. \$2.95.

The scene of this story is laid in present day Jamaica. It focuses on the details of daily life of a native family, centered around a twelve year old boy and his younger sister. Written for middle elementary readers, it will be used best as a background reading in social studies.

SHIGLEY, FOREST. *All About Guns for Boys*. Denison, 1962. 46p. \$3.95.

As a survey of America's more important modern guns, this brief account gives an elementary boy examples of different classes. The illustrations are made up of photographs and an occasional cartoon. Always a popular subject with boys this edition is brief and will meet their needs, including as it does, the care of guns and basic rules of safety.

SHORTALL, LEONARD. *Sam's First Fish*. Morrow, 1962. 48p. \$2.75.

Sam loved to watch the river and his big brother fishing, but he was so little that his brother would not lend him his rod and reel. When Sam saw a big fish jump, his brother, his father, and even his mother would not believe him. It took his Uncle Jack to prove that he was right. A story that good readers in the second grade will love to read to their four year old brother and sister.

SMITH, PEERY. *Hidden Place*. Dutton, 1962. 256p. \$2.95.

Set in the Cascade Mountains in Oregon in the 1880's, this is an exciting tale of adventure. Johnny Deakens is at odds with Reece Morley, his brother-in-law, whom he neither likes or trusts. Reece has taken over the ranch and is trying to have Johnny admitted to an asylum. Johnny escapes, discovers an old map, and solves a jewel robbery in this suspenseful story of old Oregon.

STEVENS, CARLA. *Rabbit and Skunk and Scarry Rock*. Young, Scott, 1962. Unp. \$2.75.

A beginning-to-read story using a humorous approach to the problem of fear. Lively, amusing illustrations carry the story along and will aid many a beginner to read on his own. The experiences of the characters will amuse the young child and help him to see some of his own reactions in a different light perhaps.

STEVENS, MARRY ELLEN. *Little Cloud*. Reilly & Lee, 1962. 155p. \$3.75.

The scene of this story is laid in Texas and the Great Plains, the account being an imaginative novel with scientific background dealing with the activities of a twelve year old boy, Little Cloud, and that of his tribe. The time, 15,000 years ago. Maps and black

and white drawings add much to the book, which will interest upper elementary readers.

SUGGS, ROBERT. *Modern Discoveries in Archaeology*. Crowell, 1962. 118p. \$2.95.

Excellent simplified presentation of an archaeologist and his work designed to interest teenagers in the opportunities and procedures in this field.

SUTCLIFF, ROSEMARY. *Dawn Wind*. Walck, 1962. 241p. \$3.75.

Set in Britain in the 6th century A. D. when the Saxons have overrun the island this well written historical fiction tells of a young boy and girl who are enslaved by the Saxons in the years which follow. It is a time of much change and many problems for them, but the book closes on a hopeful note for the people of Britain. Recommended for mature readers.

SWANSON, ARLENE. *Dulcy*. Reilly & Lee, 1962. 180p. \$2.75.

Dulcy is a rebellious young teen ager, who refuses help offered by her teachers and feels her parents are unconcerned about her. Following a series of unfortunate episodes, climaxed by a tragic accident, Dulcy, reaches maturity and understanding. Girls 12-16.

TEMPKIN, SARAH AND HOVELL, LUCY. *Jinny Williams: Library Assistant*. Messner, 1962. 191p. \$2.95.

Having to work a year before attending college, Jinny Williams, who loves people and books, takes a job as a library assistant, although her boy friend objects to the long hours. Jinny was in for many surprises during her year as junior assistant, but during this time she grows up and learns a lot about her career, and where her love lies.

THAYER, JANE. *Andy's Square Blue Animal*. Morrow, 1962. 48p. \$2.78.

Andy decided it wasn't exciting enough to tell Mother he had just seen a squirrel. So he invented a strange wonderful creature. As Mother asked questions, Andy's animal took on stranger and stranger characteristics. But was he really fooling his Mother? Four to eight year olds will enjoy this story and Meg Wohlberg's illustrations which put this

rare, square, blue animal together piece by piece.

THOMAS, DAVID. *Underwater Adventure*. Lantern, 1962. 199p. \$2.96.

Here are nine short stories written for the flipper, mask, and aqua lung enthusiast. Because of their brevity, sensationalism, and general style of writing, they should do well to lure the non-reader from his television program, and help him to find a reading interest. From there the librarian can guide him to other stories which he may enjoy. Junior high school reading.

TERRELL, JOHN UPTON. *Key to Washington*. Lippincott, 1962. 128p. \$2.95.

This survey of Washington, D. C. is centered on the city in its unique characteristics of having been located and developed as a governmental metropolis. Beginning with its early history, the text is well illustrated with drawings and photographs, and comes up to the present. The East Room, for example, is being discussed in terms of Mrs. Kennedy's choices. The book touches only high points, but is fine for the elementary reader.

TOMPKINS, WALTER A. *DX Brings Danger*. McRae Smith, 1962. 204p. \$2.95.

This is the third book by Mr. Tompkins about a radio ham, Tommy Rockford. Those who have read either *SOS AT MIDNIGHT* or *CQ GHOST SHIP* will expect plenty of suspense and sheer excitement, and will not be disappointed. A supposed Spanish galleon sunk long ago. A fake expedition and false friends as well as true ones lead to apparently hopeless captivities and most surprising escapes. For junior high readers.

TREECE, HENRY. *Golden One*. Criterion, 1962. 191p. \$3.50.

Based on the fall of Constantinople, this story takes a semi-royal brother and sister through their loss of parents and position, to their retreat in peaceful hills and finally to their capture by Tartar tribesmen of the great Kham. The immensely exciting and colorful pictures of this epoch in history makes excellent reading for world history students.

TRENT, BILL. *Northwoods Doctor*. Lippincott, 1962. 320p. \$5.95.

Called "LeBon Dieu de Nord" by his parents, this doctor practiced medicine over hundreds of miles in Northern Quebec during the periods between the two world wars and afterward. He traveled by canoe, bush plane, dog sled, and snow shoes doing general practice for the most part. The strange stories present harsh, physical, realities and pay tribute to the good doctor, and will be fine reading for a special high-school group.

TREZ, DENISE AND ALAIN. *Magic Paintbox*. World, 1962. Unp. \$3.00.

Imagine drawing all kinds of animals on a garage wall only to have them come alive and begin a series of madcap actions. That is what happens in this merry story of the MAGIC PAINTBOX, which is gaily illustrated in four colors.

TRUE, LOUISE. *Number Men*. Children's Press, 1962. Unp. \$2.50.

First grade readers will love this approach to the learning and making of numbers up to ten. Vivid interesting illustrations built on clever ideas will help them in their own efforts, and will make well directed reading as well.

UHL, MELVIN. *About Cargo Ships*. Melmont, 1962. 32p. \$2.50.

Well edited to meet the needs of the middle elementary student in his study of industry, this will prove valuable, as the previous ones have in this series. Large clear type, interesting two-toned pictures on every page, will aid in getting up-to-date information in a very satisfactory way. Excellent format.

VANRENSSELER, ALEXANDER. *The Picture History of America*. Doubleday, 1961. 189p. \$4.95.

An American History for young readers. There is an abundance of illustration, many in four-color. The text is well written, but disjointed. An unusual "fact-finder and index" makes the book useable as a quick reference.

VAN DER LOEFF, A. RUTGERS. *Oregonat Last*. Morrow, 1962. 220p. \$2.95.

This is a fictionalized story of an almost incredible achievement of John Sager, age 13, and his younger brother and five sisters, one a babe in arms. Determined to follow the wishes of their dead parents to reach Whitman's settlement on the Columbia, they surmounted dangers of wild beasts, approaching winter, treacherous Indians in a trip to Fort Hall.

VAN RHIJM, ALEID. *Tide in the Attic*. Criterion, 1962. 127p. \$3.00.

This is an authentic fictionalized, personal account of what happens to a farm family in Holland when the dyke breaks and the farm is flooded. It is a rather distressing story, but adds real feeling to what it means to be flooded out, and the distress of waiting for rescue. The book is for children about 10 to 14.

WALTERS, HUGH. *Out Post On the Moon*. Criterion, 1962. 191p. \$3.50.

Three young astronauts, a Russian, an American, and a Britisher, plus a strange unexplainable fourth, are given the assignment of establishing man's first "home away from home." This fine example of science fiction is written from the British point of view as mediator between the two great powers. Exciting reading for those who wonder how Col. Glenn felt about his adventure.

WATTS, MABEL. *Weeks and Weeks*. Abelard, 1962. Unp. \$2.75.

How the people of a community—Pleasant Prairie—got so busy celebrating special weeks, such as Swat-That-Fly Week, Do-It-Yourself Week, Hot-Dog Week, that they forgot the Big-Moments-In-Life such as weddings and graduations is the theme of this gaily written story. Boldly and Brilliantly illustrated in color, this book combines fun in words and in pictures.

WEISS, HARVEY. *My Closet Full of Hats*. Abelard, 1962. Unp. \$2.75.

An unusual collection of nonsense, illustrated by the author. Both the text and the drawings are humorous and are built on a surprising sort of idea for the young child. The primary child will enjoy having the story read to him, and many of them will be inspired to begin a collection of their own, as is suggested in the end of the book. Unusual.

WERSTEIN, IRVING. *Civil War Sailor*. Doubleday, 1962. 144p. \$2.50.

Elementary readers in this area are extremely interested in stories of the Civil War, and will welcome this title which is well edited to their level. Billy Harper had always wanted to join the Navy. How he got on board the Monitor as it was leaving New York and was in the midst of the great sea battle which involved this famous ship, will prove fascinating reading for this group.

WIBBERLY, LEONARD. *Treegate's Raiders*. Ariel, 1962. 218p. \$3.25.

In this authentic story of the Revolutionary War young Peter Treegate is in the South where he is training a group of mountaineers and becomes the leader of these raiders. The quick action and strategy of the book lets them see action at King's Mountain and Cowpens and the final battle at Yorktown. There is also a brief bit of romance as Peter meets Nancy.

WOOLEY, CATHERINE. *Look Alive Libby*. Morrow, 1962. 191p. \$2.75.

Libby, age 12 and brought up in the New York apartments, spends the summer with her Aunt Paula in a Cape Cod cottage. With the help of her friends she finds out many things about birds, mice, snakes, and flowers. She changes from a rather helpless somebody into a girl who can "look alive." A simple tale told with adroitness and understanding. Just right for girls about 8 to 12.

WORTHINGTON, MARJORIE. *Bouboukar*. Little, Brown, 1962. 140p. \$3.25.

Written for the elementary reader, this is the story of an orphan Arab boy, who through the kindness of an American lady finds a family and a place in Sahara Village. A beautiful book illustrated in black and white. It will be used as background reading in social studies; a picture of customs and culture in present day desert country.

WORTHYLAKE, MARY. *Nika Illahee*. Melmont, 1962. 32p. \$2.50.

A beautiful contribution to early elementary social studies, this survey is given through the point of view of a child. Excellent two-tone drawings accompany the text, which is well edited to the level of reading,

as to vocabulary, sentence structure, and type. It is actually what we are needing for the young reader in this field.

WRIGHT, DARE. *Date with London*. Random House, 1962. \$3.25.

This is a book of wonderful photographs of the things one would like to see in a couple of weeks in London. The photographs are well selected and take one on a type of guided tour. This is particularly interesting for children, or grown folks who have been, or are planning to go to, London.

WUNSCH, JOSEPHINE. *Flying Skis*. McKay, 1962. 212p. \$3.75.

Disqualified from Skyview's big race for reasons other than her skiing Nikki Jorgenson is ready to give up the idea of ever becoming a ski champ, until her parents send her to the upper peninsula for the winter. Discouraged at first she does not make the team, with the help of Scoop her coach, Nikki finally gets her break and learns many things in the process. Junior high girls.

YOUNG, BOB AND JAN. *Sunday Dreamer*. Messner, 1962. 192p. \$2.95.

When Nancy Demarest begins living with her wealthy grandmother, Nancy rides a wave of popularity until she finds out her grandmother is penniless. Nancy soon learns that there is more to life than just being a big wheel, and belonging to a sorority—she learns people like you for yourself and for what you give of yourself. A good lesson for teenage girls.

ZIMMERMAN, NAOMI AND SCHYLER, RUBY. *Corky in Orbit*. Reilly & Lee, 1962. 31p. \$2.50.

Primary readers interested in space stories will be delighted with this easy-to-read adventure that Corky and Pete have as they take their cats and go on a free ride in a real space ship. Vivid drawings appear on every page and add much to the enjoyment of the story. It should be very popular.

Education and Psychology

ANDERSON AND GRYHN. *Principles and Practices of Secondary Education*.

Ronald, 1962. 514p. \$6.75.

The revision of a good text, that is simple in its approach and designed for the college student or the beginning teacher. The authors are quite practical in their approach to the problems facing the uninitiated.

ANDERSON, F. LESTER. *Education for the Profession*. Univ. of Chicago, 1962. 301p. \$4.50.

By no means a source book or handbook on the professions, but instead a collection of thirteen essays dealing with various phases of the topic. Only four essays bear reference to the topic, the others are general in scope. The concluding essay, "The Ideal Education for the Professional Man" is particularly worth noting.

BARBE, WALTER. *Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction*. Prentice-Hall, 1962. 242p. \$4.95.

The reviewer unhesitatingly recommends this book to all involved in teaching reading. While it is aimed at the primary and intermediate teacher, it presents a breakdown of skills valuable to teachers at all levels. Theory is accompanied by practical suggestions for organizing the classroom for "Personalized Instruction."

DUROST, WALTER AND PRESCOTT. *Essentials of Measurement for Teachers*. Harcourt, 1962. 158p. \$3.85.

This volume was prepared with the need of teachers in mind, and the authors have substantial experience in the field. The material is clearly and directly presented.

GETZELS, JACKSON. *Creativity and Intelligence*. Wiley, 1962. 293p. \$6.50.

A study of highly intelligent and creative children. Actually the book is in large part a comparison of certain children possessing a high I.Q. and slightly lower rating as creative individuals with others who are quite creative, but whose I.Q. lacks a bit in matching their creative abilities. A number of case studies are presented.

HENRY, NELSON. *Individualizing Instruction*. Univ. of Chicago, 1962. 372p. \$3.50.

A well balanced thorough study of the topic, keeping the standard of quality one

has come to expect from the organization with whose name it is associated. The essays are centered around four major areas in the nature of the individual difference, illustrations of individual differences, current school practices and implications for the future.

HOWITT, LILLIAN. *Practical Classroom Testing*. Teacher's Practical Press, 1962. 72p. \$1.75.

This inexpensive paperbound book should prove useful to teachers seeking help in the construction of classroom tests. Numerous practical suggestions and examples are given.

KARPAS, MELVIN, MATHEWSON. *Social Status and American Education*.

This well prepared, well written monograph is a desirable acquisition for any library seeking to expand its holdings in the field of education. Titles of this type are generally available in small quantities with a resulting small distribution.

MCCONNELL, R. T. *General Pattern for American Public Higher Education*. McGraw Hill, 1962. 198p.

Within the pages of this volume the author faces the problem of increasing college enrollments in the decades ahead, and America's challenge to meet the oncoming tide. Pertinent questions are raised and the answers are challenging. It is an excellent, non-technical book which contains much of value to both the professional educationer and the layman seriously interested in the future of American colleges and universities.

MALLERY, DAVID. *Highschool Students Speak Out*. Harper, 1962. 171p. \$3.95.

This is a thought provoking little volume that does exactly what its title indicates. It is decidedly worth reading.

NEWSON, CARROLL. *University President Speaks Out*. Harper, 1962. 118p. \$2.95.

In four excellent essays the President of New York University expresses himself in a quite articulate fashion, on the problems confronting education in the second half of the twentieth century. The volume is decidedly worth reading.

PARTHEMOS, GEORGE. *Higher Education in a World of Conflict*. Univ. of Ga., 1962. 175p. \$2.00.

These are the papers originally presented at a conference held in September, 1961, at the University of Georgia. The speaker seems to have been well chosen for, in general, the papers are interesting, and they are of uniformly high quality.

PERKINS, DEXTER AND SNELL. *Education of Historians in the United States*. McGraw Hill, 1962. 244p. \$4.95.

Within the pages of this volume one finds a carefully prepared, full scale study of the graduate education of American historians. Its preparation was sponsored by the committee on Graduate Education of the American Historical Association, and made possible by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation. The teachers of history in our colleges and the deans, both graduate and undergraduate, should place this book on their personnel reading list. John L. Snell, director of the study and a member of Tulane's Department of History, wrote eight of the ten chapters and thus deserves much of the credit of the high standard set by the book.

STILES, LINDLEY, AND OTHERS. *Secondary Education in the United States*. Harcourt, 1962. 528p. \$6.25.

This is a good text on supplementary volume in the field of secondary education. Far more a simple discussion of curriculum and methods, it covers purposes and methods, the actual operation of secondary schools, the facilities—including competent teachers, building and equipment, and finally a discussion of areas of concern to those persons actively interested in secondary education. It is perhaps this last section which will prove to be most valuable.

STRANG, RUTH. *Helping Your Child Improve His Reading*. E. P. Dutton, 1962. 254p. \$4.50.

The author believes that the home plays an important part in making a child a good or poor reader. In this book his aim is to give parents background of understanding that will help them determine their own role in the reading development of their children as a supplement to the school's

more formal reading program. A helpful bibliography of children's books arranged by age groups is to be found in the appendix.

WEIDNER, EDWARD. *World Role of Universities*. McGraw Hill, 1962. 366p. \$6.95.

The study reported here is world wide, as the title indicates. Early chapters contain material useful to students of comparative education. The great body of the work discusses cooperative programs and exchange programs around the world. The final chapters offer recommendations for exchange programs in the future.

Health and Physical Education

MATTHEWS, DONALD. *Science of Physical Education for Handicapped Children*. Harper, 1962. 317p. \$5.50.

A highly practical volume, clearly written with good illustrations. Useful bibliographies are included at the end of each chapter.

MILANDER, HOLGER. *School Health Education*. Macmillan, 1962. 500p. \$6.50.

A comprehensive, up-to-date source of reference, of value to both elementary and secondary teachers as well as to health specialists in the schools. Accent is on content as well as methods in teaching. A sequential teaching plan for eleven major health problems is well developed.

Literature

CLARCK, LEONARD. *Walter De La Mare*. Walck, 1962. 81p. \$2.50.

Walter de la Mare, who said "Only the rarest kind of best is good enough for children," is the subject of this volume which is one of the Walck monographs being published about eminent children's authors. This book is not only of interest to teachers and librarians; it is of equal interest to all who want to know about children's books.

CROUCH, MARCUS. *Beatrix Potter*. Walck, 1961. 75p. \$2.50.

BEATRIX POTTER is one of the Walck

series of short, critical accounts of the life and work of eminent children's authors. As such they form a useful introduction to the field of children's literature, not only for teachers and librarians, but for everyone interested in children's books.

COLE, WILLIAMS ED. *Poems for Seasons and Celebrations*. World Pub., 1962. 191p. \$3.95.

Here, to honor in various ways the four seasons and twenty two important celebrations of the year, are over 140 poems, both traditional and modern, selected with discrimination and taste by a well known anthologist.

GREEN, ROGER. *J. M. Barrie*. Walck, 1961. 64p. \$2.50.

All who are interested in the life and works of J. M. Barrie will welcome this short, critical account of the life and work of this eminent children's author. A Barrie booklist is included; also a list of Barrie's books published in the United States.

HORACE. *Collected Works*. E. P. DUTTON. 1962. 304p. Everyman's Library.

The translation is by Lord Dunsany and Micheal Oakley; the introduction by Micheal Oakley. This is a good edition, well printed and in convenient size, as are all of the Everyman's Library books.

JOHNSON, THOMAS. *Final Harvest: Emily Dickinson's Poems*. Little, Brown, 1962. 331p. \$4.75.

A rich and representative selection of the best poems from Emily Dickinson's complete works. 575 poems were chosen for this collection by Mr. Thomas Johnson, the editor.

Time of Harvest. Hill and Wang, 1962. 173p. \$1.45.

A series of 15 essays each by an individual author. Arranged in a more or less logical and chronological order giving an interpretation of American literature from the years 1910 to 1960.

Music

STRAVINSKY, IGOR AND CRAFT, R.

Expositions and Development. Doubleday. 1962. 190p. \$4.95.

Questions, musical and biographical, asked by Robert Craft, set off the recollections of Stravinsky. This book is filled with ideas, insights into the composition of music, and the expression of Stravinsky's own unique perspective of the historical and musical scene. Recommended for the general reader interested in autobiography and the developments of music as well as for the musician.

SHULTZ, GLADYS. *Jenny Lind: Swedish Nightingale*. Lippincott, 1962. 352p. \$6.50.

An engrossing account of the development and career of the most adored and admired singer on record, from her unhappy childhood—born out of wedlock, and rejected by her mother—through a fabulous career to a happy marriage and parenthood: through the countless benefactions in her declining years, and culminating in her being the first woman ever to be memorialized in Westminster Abbey.

BULLA, CLYDE. *The Ring and the Fire*. Crowell, 1962. 124p. \$3.50.

In presenting the stories of Wagner's opera cycle, "The Ring of the Nibelung" the author uses a simple dramatic style of prose quite appropriately. He includes a brief biography of Wagner, emphasizing his break from traditional opera form, the cast of characters, themes from the operas, and an index. This fine little book is illustrated with wood cuts in keeping with these powerful stories from Norse and German mythology.

Philosophy and Religion

GULICK, LUTHER. *Metropolitan Problem and American Ideas*. Knopf, 1962. 166p. \$3.95.

A program of action addressed to private citizens as well as to civic and political leaders in regard to possible solutions of metropolitan problems.

HARRINGTON, MICHEAL. *Other America*. Macmillan, 1962. 191p. \$4.00.

Challenging discussions of some of our

social problems centering around unskilled workers, the aged, minorities, and others who live in an economic underworld in the wealthiest nation the world has ever known.

LEWIS, C. S. *The Abolition of Man*. Macmillan, 1962. 61p.

This is the seventh printing of these essays, originally published in 1947. The three were delivered as lectures at the University of Durham, and, collected as a volume, they rank among the author's more important publications. Thoughtful questions are raised concerning man's conquest of himself and of nature.

Reference

Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States. NEA, 1962. 219p. \$4.00.

This sixth biennial issue contains much up to date information of the requirements for teaching in the United States, Puerto Rico, and military overseas dependent schools, also requirements for teaching and study abroad. The user will find much valuable information such as classification of approved teacher education institutions according to function and control, tables showing types of accreditation and types of programs for which approved and more valuable information on teacher education, both statistics and discussion.

Guide to Programmed Instructional Materials. Center for Programmed Instruction. 1962. 383p.

A valuable source for educators interested in programmed instruction; this handbook describes existing materials and includes sample frames.

HANSON, HERBERT. *Dictionary of Ecology*. Phil. Lib., 382p. \$10.00.

An expensive dictionary defining approximately 3000 words, with an average of nine words to the page in comparatively large print, stretches the book to 382 pages. Definitions in the main, are brief. Words used in the definition which are defined elsewhere are in italics. Pronunciation is not given. See references average one to a page. The aim of the dictionary is to define the new words which have come into use in the last thirty years and the old words in current use.

MACDONALD, A. M. *Chamber's Etymological English Dictionary*. Phil. Lib., 1962. 775p. \$6.00.

In addition to the value of this completely revised etymological dictionary, itself, there are special features which are very useful: the list of prefixes and suffixes, list of names from mythology identified, list of abbreviations, metric system and maps.

McCLINTOCK, MARSHALL AND INEX. *Toys in America*. Public Affairs, 1962. 486p. \$8.00.

TOYS IN AMERICA tells the history of playthings as seen in the broader framework of a changing and growing nation, up to the present time, when Americans spend a billion and a half dollars yearly on children's toys. The authors traveled over thirty thousand miles to gather this material, visited scores of toy manufacturers, libraries, museums, historical societies, and private collectors of old toys. They assembled more than 400 pictures to illustrate every phase of their history and compiled a list of toy manufacturers before 1900 which will prove of special value to social historians and to collectors of antique toys. This is a definitive and authoritative book on American toys.

UNESCO. *Study Abroad*. UNESCO, 1962.

STUDY ABROAD, as its subtitle indicates, is an annual and indispensable international handbook of Fellowships, scholarships, and educational exchange.

UNESCO. *Vacations Abroad*. UNESCO, 1962. 160p. \$1.25.

Sixty-eight countries and 861 institutions or organizations have contributed information on their educational activities in which people may participate during the summer months. These opportunities arranged by country are classified as vacation courses; hostels; holiday camps and centers; study tours; international voluntary work camps; or other short-term exchange opportunities.

WATTERSON, J. G. *McKay's Modern French-English Dictionary*. McKay, 1962. 569p. \$6.50.

This up-to-date dictionary contains new scientific and technical terms and words in everyday use. The most outstanding fea-

tures are its separate listing of general business terms, weights and measures table, and irregular verb forms, and the new policy of having separate main entries for a noun and its adjectival and adverbial derivatives.

GLADSTON, IAGO. *Voluntary Action and the State*. International Univ. Press, 1962. 152p. \$3.00.

The book attempts to throw some light on the role of government in the areas of research, education and care, and the responsibility on non-governmental agencies. It presents ten papers presented at the twenty-first Eastern States Health Conference held in 1961. Each paper deals with some aspect of the problem.

HALL, WADE H. *Reflections of the Civil War in Southern Humor*. Univ. of Fla., 1962. 82p.

A delightful little volume which, in view of the centennial celebrations now in progress, would appear to have been published at exactly the right time.

HAWKINS, HUGH. *Booker T. Washington and His Critics*. D. C. Heath, 112p. \$1.50.

One of the Amherst Problems in American Civilization series. This volume deals with various views concerning Washington's program of betterment for his race. The issues involved are still present in much of the discussion today. This is a timely book and deals with a very important contemporary subject.

HIGHMAN, JOHN. *The Reconstruction of American History*. Humanities Press, 1962. 244p. \$6.50.

Ten authorities, in a series of essays, present changing interpretations of major aspects of American history. The editor's formidable introduction is followed by chapters dealing with a range of subjects from Puritanism to the United States as a Twentieth Century world power. Altogether, a useful volume.

HOEHLING, A. A. *Who Destroyed the Hindenburg?* Little, Brown, 1962. 241p. \$4.95.

A spectacular incident in aviation history

serves as the subject of an exciting quest for answers in the mystery surrounding the crash of the Hindenburg. Interviews with passengers and observers are painstakingly compared and a solution is offered. An interesting account.

HORSMAN, REGINALD. *Causes of the War of 1812*. Univ. of Pa., 1962. 346p. \$6.00.

A well-documented treatment of the background of this confusing period in American history. The book finds the causes mainly in British maritime policy resulting in total war against France. Liberal use of correspondence, diaries and original documents make for interesting and informative reading.

LEAVITT, JEROME. *America and Its Indians*. Children's Press, 1962. 220p. \$5.50.

An authoritative and attractive account of American Indian life. This book should have great appeal to anyone interested in Indian lore. It traces the Indian from pre-historic evidence to the present contributions of Indians in America today.

MARSHALL, S. L. A. *Night Drop*. Little, Brown, 1962. 425p. \$6.50.

The officers and men of the 82d and 101st Airborne Divisions are the main character in this story of the first days of the invasion of Normandy. It is told in language of those who were there, and by one who knows the ways of men in war. Many books have been written about the battles, incidents and campaigns of World War II but few have the power to provide the atmosphere created by the author of this book.

MARTIN, JOSEPH. *Private Yankee Doodle*. Little, Brown, 1962. 250p. \$6.50.

This is an original document concerning the life of an American private in the Revolutionary War written by the soldier himself. The new annotated edition is a highly entertaining and informative account of several of the great campaigns of the war. The original language and expressions of that day are preserved.

New Frontiersman: Profiles of Men

Around Kennedy. Public Affairs, 1962. 254p. \$4.50.

In this who's who world of the New Frontier each appointee is discussed in an inter-biographical sketch. The book supports the Kennedy appointment policies and attempts to answer many of the criticisms through material presented in an introduction.

OSTENDORF, LLOYD. *Picture Story of Abraham Lincoln*. Lothrop, 1962. 160p. \$3.50.

An excellent collection of Lincoln pictures, including contemporary illustrations from the Lincoln period. An interesting and useful volume for home or school library.

RAY, DONALD P. *Trends in Social Science*. Phil. Lib., 1961. 169p. \$4.75.

This small volume contains chapters written by distinguished social scientists in such research areas as economics, political science and sociology. There are also separate chapters on statistical and quantitative methodology, interdisciplinary research, and the financing of research.

SELLMAN, R. R. *The First World War*. Criterion, 1962. 160p. \$3.50.

As an intensive treatment of a brief period in history this volume for young readers fulfills its purpose. The roots of the war, its campaigns, new weapons and lasting influences are dealt with in a direct and forceful manner. A valuable book for secondary school students.

SHIER, WILLIAM L. *The Sinking of the Bismark*. Random House, 1962. 169p. \$1.95.

One of the World Landmark Books. This exciting account is designed for young readers and its numerous illustrations and maps help provide a clearer picture of the events leading to the end of Germany's largest battleship.

SMITH, J. MALCOLM AND COTTER, CORNELIUS P. *Powers of the President During Crisis*. Public Affairs, 1962. 184p. \$5.00.

How much power can the president of

the United States wield in an emergency to safeguard the nations security? On the other hand, what limits exist on the emergency use of presidential power? Furthermore, what is an emergency? No clear answer to these questions exist. After surveying the emergency legislation now on the statute books, Smith and Cotter conclude that it is by no means certain that the United States can either safe guard the individual freedom of its citizens over the long run or act in a crisis to insure national survival.

SMITH, E. BROOKS. *Pilgrim Courage*. Little, Brown, 1962. 108p. \$3.25.

This is William Bradford's original history of the Plymouth Colony adapted for modern readers, and particularly for young readers. The flavor of the original is still present and the exciting story of these early settlers is well done and interestingly illustrated. An excellent book for school libraries.

SPAULDING, WILDER. *Ambassadors: Ordinary and Extraordinary*. Public Affairs, 1962. 298p. \$5.00.

An extremely useful survey of the careers of a few dozen selected American diplomats, written with a view toward isolating the characteristics of the idea ambassador. Although Spaulding believes the quality of American ambassadors could, on the whole, be higher, this is not a sensational work. Rather, it is one that largely succeeds in its purpose. In so doing it fills a gap in the literature of American Diplomacy.

Steamboats on the Mississippi. American Heritage, 1962. unp. \$3.95.

One of the American Heritage Junior Library Series. The volume tells the exciting story of the steamboats role in opening the West. Beautiful illustrations add much to the enjoyment of the book. The text contains many interesting and enlightening details not found in standard history textbooks.

SWEARINGEN, RODGER. *World of Communism*. Houghton Mifflin, 1962. 278p. \$2.32.

An attempt to fill the need for a readable exposition of Communism for use in American high schools. Swearingen has turned out as non-controversial an analysis of this exceedingly controversial subject as possible.

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Editorial—

“Two Strikes Are Out!”

In over three decades spent on the campuses of colleges and universities of various types in different parts of the United States, about half this time as a teacher and the other half as an administrator, I have never personally known even one teacher or administrator held in high professional regard by his colleagues who was not dedicated to what is being currently referred to as “academic excellence.”

I am confident therefore, that practically all the able college teachers and administrators of the whole United States are grateful for the recent emphasis on “academic excellence.” I am equally confident that many of them must be chagrined and dismayed by some of the individual professorial interpretations of “academic excellence” they are frequently encountering and also by some of the sins they are seeing daily committed in the name of “academic excellence.”

For on campuses all over the country, elderly professors of the dry-as-dust variety are interpreting the “academic excellence” emphasis as an endorsement of the thirty-year-old lectures which they monotone from yellowed notebooks, and as a final admission by the world that great soul-saving efficacy for the young lies in the memorizing thereof. On the opposite range young instructors with that “fresh-out-of-graduate school” look and attitude, instead of—as in former years—truculently and somewhat defensively explaining that in flunking two-thirds of a freshman class they are “maintaining standards,” now in the same situation look piously and expectantly heavenward to receive the bless-

ings due for their momentous contribution thus rendered to the cause of “academic excellence.”

Perhaps people and the world haven’t changed much in the generation or so since the great unlearned majority of Americans were so hopefully seeking salvation through “book l’arnin’ ” for their children. Therefore today, when the non-academic majority are almost persuaded that in our time salvation may be achieved through “academic excellence,” it may not be reasonable to expect much better leadership from those of us who on this second chance for the professors should lead the way in achieving “academic excellence” than was provided by those who on the first chance had the responsibility of dispensing the “book l’arnin’ ”.

But there is a difference this time. Because, although *people* may not have changed much within the last generation, the *world* has—and even the rules of the game. It looks as if this *second* chance for us professors will probably be the *last* chance. For today, in this game, “Two strikes are out.”

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Canyon, Texas

Junta Freedom and School Leadership

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Freedom is an elusive character. All of us possess a little of it, but none of us has it all. Like a muscle it grows with exercise and atrophies with disuse. When freedom grows flabby, we can be certain that slavery will rush in to take its place.

School leadership, like freedom, is a slippery will-o'-the-wisp; a kind of "now you have it, now you don't." In the past, leadership was commonly equated with school administration. We have, in recent years, fortunately outgrown this naive notion. While administrators exert leadership of many kinds, they have no monopoly on guiding the action of others. Supervisors and teachers are leaders too, as they influence the understanding and behavior of others—of pupils, of parents and of teachers.

This article is about two kinds of limitations on freedom, the legal and extra-legal, and about the challenge facing American school leaders in the classroom, in the supervisor's office, and in the principal's chair. It is written through the perspective of an American school man with memories of recent work in public education in the plucky little nation of South Korea.

It would be presumptuous to attempt an assessment of today's political situation in Korea. Neither available space nor the qualifications of the writer would permit the analysis. Hope is clouded by concern. Yet many facts are plain to see which describe the current political climate in which Korean school leaders have been trying to provide educational opportunities for children and youth. Within one year after the junta revolution of May 16, 1961, school leaders were bombarded by many major events. The Ministry of Education was quickly placed in the hands of a Marine Colonel as Minister of Education. A new civilian vice-minister was appointed. After a series of drastic actions in education, both the Minister and Vice-minister "resigned" and were

replaced by a civilian Minister of Education and by a Vice-minister—an Army Brigadier General.

Personnel and organization within the Ministry throughout this period continued in a fluid state, and no person had any sense of security in tenure except on a capricious day by day basis. Matters became more unpredictable because of a lack of coordinated planning between the Supreme Council's Committee on Education and the Ministry of Education. The Central Intelligence Agency also got into the act from time to time, although not in the public view. Teachers, supervisors, and school administrators were desperately trying to be loyal both to the avowed purposes of the new government and to their own cherished convictions about education. Sometimes the gap was wide indeed.

Actions taken could not have been much more unnerving had they been deliberately calculated to undermine the profession of teaching. In the political field, the regulation that all rice must be cooked with some barley or beans almost cost a school principal his job, inadvertently, because someone else packed his lunch. The midnight curfew, applicable to citizens throughout the nation, was enforced for a year after the revolution and lifted then, only temporarily, for the benefit of foreigners visiting this land of strange junta freedom during its May, 1962 anniversary.

The prescribing of a civilian uniform and identification badges for government employees was an early military symbol of action far more conducive to conformity than to freedom and diversity. The drastic move to abolish all colleges of education, the hasty and hectic preparation of a national examination for college graduates by quarantined colleged professors (confined on an ad hoc basis to an undisclosed hotel)—to determine whether they should receive government approved degrees or not; the wholesale reassignments of teachers in urban areas to rural villages and vice versa, all contributed toward an insecurity and virtually a servile dependence upon the new governing power. As if for good measure, three college professors, including a Dean of Students and a Dean of a College of Education, were fired and jailed in connection with a so-called unauthorized assembly of students who dared to question the wisdom of action on the part of the Ministry

of Education in abolishing colleges of education.

The government is now busy trying to right many of its recent wrongs, including the recent restoration of these three faculty members to full faculty status with retroactive pay to the date of their dismissal. However, the climate of complete governmental authority has not substantially changed.

As these lines are written the private Central Education Research Institute is informed that it is soon to be “nationalized” (brought under direct government control). The Institute has a choice—to close up.

Americans who wish can be critical of Korean school men and women for not rising to the cause of freedom in this land of junta rule. We can say that what Koreans need is the “good ole American spirit of 1776.” Aside from the emotional overtones of this phrase, however, there is serious question as to whether this is the need for Korean educators today. The analogy of the situation does not hold. The King of England had far less control over the American colonists, for example, than the Chairman of the Supreme Council, doubling as acting President and recently as acting Premier as well, has over Korean subjects. Besides, the nature of risks involved and controls exercised are far from similar.

But the “Spirit of Seventy-Six” is beside the point for Americans today. We need to ask ourselves about the “Spirit of 1963,” among members of the teaching profession in the United States. What kind of freedom do we have and how are we using it? This question comes close home. We do not have to worry about putting barley in our rice nor being home by midnight. What we have to worry about is the responsibility that goes with our freedom.

In America, the most dramatic recent use of teacher freedom was the biggest strike by public employees in United States history, when more than half of New York City’s forty thousand public school teachers managed, through extra-legal measures, to raise the pay scale via the walkout route. Judging from public debates in such literature as the *Saturday Review*, it would appear that the militant minority of New York City’s teachers, to use a coined expression, rose above principle. Despite the carping of critics, however, the teachers showed a spunk that is not common enough in educational circles.

But where can we find teachers becoming collectively militant in some unselfish cause, such as government by law or protesting against politically ridden schools, or Birchism, or culturally deprived and disadvantaged youngsters who are missing out on any decent kind of schooling? When teachers go on strikes for safer transportation for children to school, or for more adequate library materials for learning, or when teachers rebel at over commercialized fads such as a patent medicine type of teaching machines, then we will be more worthy of calling ourselves members of a mature profession.

The Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development in 1960 carried the title *Leadership for Improving Instruction*. In the opening chapter of that publication several examples were cited of school administrators and teachers submitting to the arbitrary use of power of a few VIP's within the community. When we submit to extra-legal power, we may pity ourselves, but we are unworthy of the pity or the respect of American citizens at large. We in America, most of all, must show the courage and judgment exemplary of free men. We must not, as we have been accused of being, swing as a pendulum from panic to apathy about freedom in America and in the world.

David M. Potter, in his *People of Plenty*, develops some disquieting ideas. One of them, so germane to this discussion, is that economic affluence has bought us democracy. Expressed differently, Mr. Potter believes that in order to succeed as a democracy, "A country must enjoy an economic surplus to begin with, or must contrive to attain one." (p. 116)

The unfortunate corollary of this view may be that people are willing to sacrifice the principles of democracy—to forfeit freedom—in the interest of achieving or maintaining a collective or individual economic surplus; a position of wealth or credit which permits the acquiring of luxury items.

If freedom hangs by the thread of economic abundance, in America or anywhere, it hangs by a tenuous thread, indeed. Unless democracy can survive the rigors of depression and austerity, it looks like tough going ahead, with an increasing proportion of wealth being expended on armor and armament, which we cannot eat, wear, use for shelter or,

one would hope, for entertainment. If the only courage pupils find is discovered in history books instead of in the lives of today's parents, teachers and other school leaders, then we dream an empty dream, and our schools become a shell of a decadent democracy instead of the citadel for a live and growing one. We need to ask ourselves, as Walter Lippman did in, *The Public Philosophy*, about our own spirit of freedom in terms of the "Spirit of '76."

Man has had to accept responsibilities for protecting his freedom for a long, long time. "Eternal vigilance" is not an empty phrase. When Patrick Henry said, "Give me liberty or give me death," he seemed to mean it. Our lives are not now at stake in championing the cause of liberty or the principles of democracy. About the most we stand to lose is our present job in the teaching profession and the ill will of a few acquaintances whose intolerant views or vested interests may be threatened. We may even lose, as well, the amity of a number of fair-weather friends. Many years ago this writer's seventh grade school teacher said, "I never lost a friend worth having by doing the right thing." I believe that old Mr. G. P. Scott meant it and I think he was right.

From the ideological standpoint, losing one's present position, through standing for the principles of American society, is a small price to pay. From a practical standpoint, with the present critical shortage of teachers, one risks only losing a particular job, and is likely to find another one with equal or better opportunity if this is the real reason for his dismissal. In Korea, the situation is far different. With an over supply of licensed teachers, despite the low level of educational qualifications, championing the cause of freedom means losing one's employment prospects anywhere because the strong central government has firm control of virtually all job opportunities.

As school leaders, actually or potentially, whether as teachers, supervisors, or administrators, we have to ask ourselves *what things are more important than our jobs, and more important than the friendships we risk losing by standing up for our convictions?* If we can find no cause or no priorities above these two items we are not leaders. By our value system we weaken the fabric of the profession of which we are a part. We can rationalize our behavior by saying that it is the expedient

thing to do under the circumstances. On occasion we may say that discretion is the better part of valor, but if we find ourselves falling into a pattern of saying this we may be trying to kid ourselves. We may, alas, be succeeding.

American school leaders need to exercise those sinews of freedom with which our nation is so richly endowed. The school leader, meaning anyone who is in a position to influence the educational experiences of children in school, needs to live by three pledges which take inviolate precedence over job security and casual friendships. They are these: (1) to place central in one's professional life the educational interest of children and youth, rather than the comfort and contentment of teachers and parents, if and when such tests come—and come they will. (2) to be living exponents of those citizenship traits that schools are fashioned to inculcate in children and youth. (It is paradoxical to hear a teacher talk to children about a nation of free men and women who is, himself, a virtual slave to a school board, a superintendent, or to a cluster of self-styled upper-class citizens.) (3) to be tolerant of the views of others; even, if you please, the views of pupils themselves. While insisting upon preserving his own freedom of speech, within the limits of law and professional ethics, the school leader must exercise his freedom responsibly, extending it to people in all stations of society.

As we view the restricted freedom of teachers and other educators in Korea and similar countries we can only have a fraternal compassion for them. Within the narrow limits of their freedom they are acting with a tenacious hope for the future, and many of them are exercising their limited freedom with patience and admirable self-sacrifice.

Teachers in America do not all have the kind of material abundance that David Potter discussed in *People of Plenty*. But we do have an abundance of freedom, and we can enjoy it with a minimum of personal and professional risk. Unless we handle this freedom well, and rise individually with courage when it is challenged; unless we rise collectively to show our unselfish concern for man's dignity and equality of opportunity in America, we will be selling our professional birthright for a mess of pottage. We may discover that while we have been speaking platitudes about freedom and democracy, true liberty has stealthily escaped us, leaving only its shell behind.

Some Highlights of the Development of Secondary and Teacher Education in Indonesia, 1950-1961

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The progress of secondary and teacher education in Indonesia from 1950 to 1961 was phenomenal. In 1950 there were 953 schools, 7,679 teachers, and 139,553 students enrolled in sixteen different types of junior and senior secondary schools (grades seven through twelve).³ By 1961 there were approximately 7,000 schools, 65,000 teachers, and 750,000 pupils enrolled in nineteen different types of junior and senior secondary schools.⁵ Also, during this period the system of organization and supervision of the entire national structure of junior and senior high schools was reorganized and school curriculums were revised.

Newly developing countries have many educational problems, but perhaps the three problems attacked most seriously in secondary and teacher education by the Indonesians during the 1950's were (1) expansion of existing teacher education programs and the establishment of such programs on the university level, (2) writing and publication of textbooks and teaching aids, and (3) construction of modern physical plants to house the mushrooming secondary school and teacher training populations.

The author has served as a teacher, supervisor, and administrator on the elementary, secondary and college levels of schools in the United States. He was Education Program Officer, Education Office, Agency for International Development, American Embassy, Djakarta, from February, 1959, to March, 1961. During this period he assisted in writing fifty-three books and reports covering various aspects of the educational system of Indonesia. At present he is a member of the Education Department, Glassboro State College, Glassboro, New Jersey, where he teaches professional courses on the graduate level and supervises student teachers.

I

The two principal types of teacher education programs in Indonesia in 1950 were those programs on the senior high school level designed to train teachers for the public schools and the "B I and B II Courses" for more advanced teacher training on the college level.

In 1950 there were 5,066 pupils enrolled in teacher education programs on the senior high school level including teachers of technical schools, pre-school education, domestic science, physical education, schools for the handicapped, and junior high schools.³ By 1961 this number had increased ten times to approximately 50,000 pupils.⁵ The B I Course which represents two years of study beyond the senior high school and includes instruction in professional education, languages, science and mathematics, social studies, economics and the fine arts enrolled 995 students in 1950 in centers situated in various locations throughout Indonesia. Approximately 5,000 students were enrolled in the B I Course in 1961. The B II Course comprises two years of work beyond the B I Course and includes instruction in professional education, history, geography, mathematics, physical education and chemistry. There were no students enrolled in the B II Courses in 1950; however, approximately two hundred students were enrolled in this course in 1961. Satisfactory completion of either of the B I and B II Courses entitles the person to the appropriate classification on the Indonesian national salary scale. These teacher education programs are sponsored and operated by the Department of Education.

The first major teacher training institution on the university level was established at Bandung in western Java in 1953. Similar institutions were later established at Malang in eastern Java, at Tutusangkar in Sumatra, and at Tondano in Sulawesi (Celebes). These institutions are operated under the auspices of the Department of Education and offer a three year curriculum in teacher education of full time instruction including professional education, student teaching, and subject matter specialization. Satisfactory completion of the course culminates in the receipt of a baccalaureate degree. Other institutions of this type are being established at key locations throughout the country. This program is similar to that offered by the standard United States teachers college and state university college of education.

Several American institutions and groups assisted in the develop-

ment of the teacher education programs.² For example, the State University of New York accepted a contract in the mid 1950's to offer consultative advice for improvement and expansion of existing teacher education programs and to assist in the development of new ones. Tuskegee Institute signed a contract in the mid 1950's to assist in the development and expansion of trade and industrial teacher education. This contract and programs designed to improve teacher education in business education, home economics, and professional teacher education were administered and sponsored by the Education Office, Agency for International Development, Djakarta. From July, 1958, to March, 1961, the Education Office in Djakarta through its several projects sent over two hundred prospective Indonesian leaders to the United States for training in varied areas of teacher education and provided over twenty technicians to help Indonesia improve and expand her education programs at home.

II

When Indonesia finally won her independence in 1949, there were practically no textbooks or teaching aids for the secondary schools or teacher training institutions in the entire country. To make the problem more acute, many books had to be printed in countries other than Indonesia because few printing presses for such purposes were available in the country. Furthermore, it was extremely difficult to locate paper suitable for use in publishing those books that were printed in the Republic.

During the Dutch period, textbooks used in Indonesian schools were of the same type as those used in the Netherlands. The Indonesians considered that the books used for the national population clearly showed a colonial trend, the difference between the ruling people and the ruled being emphasized. Hence, the Department of Education ruled against the use of such books and began a campaign designed to encourage the production of textbooks adapted to Indonesia which would instill a healthy nationalism in its citizens.⁴ Accordingly, over two thousand manuscripts were received by the Department during the 1950's and approximately one fourth of them were approved and printed. Almost all of the manuscripts were printed outside of the country.⁶

When the university level teacher training institution was established in Bandung in 1953, very few Indonesians had the experience for writing textbooks suitable for use in professional education curriculums. Therefore, it was necessary for such materials to come from abroad. The Education Office, Agency for International Development in Djakarta, supplied textbooks and teaching aids for this program plus other university level programs valued at one quarter of a million dollars. Other nations have given assistance, but there still remains a large amount of work to be done in this area.¹

III

Physical school plant facilities for university level teacher training institutions were nonexistent in 1950, and many secondary schools had been destroyed during and as a result of World War II. A large number of those which were in fair condition in 1950 and were located in the large cities were required as offices by various departments of the government. Therefore, to reduce the shortage of school plants the Government of Indonesia acting through its Department of Education instituted a vigorous three way program of school construction: (1) construction financed by the central government, (2) construction financed by the twelve provisional governments, and (3) construction financed by districts and individual communities.

During the eleven year period from 1950 to 1961 the number of secondary schools in Indonesia increased by eight times the original number. These plants were designed to meet national standards and the construction was financed by districts and local communities. Many school plants which had been partly destroyed during the war were renovated and rebuilt. The greater portion of this work was done at the expense of the provisional governments and the districts and local communities.

University level teacher training institutions were designed and built at the expense of the central government. The provisional and district governments gave some assistance. Some of these properties had originally been built for wealthy Europeans; others had to be built from the foundation. The major building of the teacher training institution in Bandung was built as a place for relaxation for Europeans.

It is an unusual and unusually beautiful building commanding a lovely vista. The location offers a wide view of the near and distant landscape and reminds one of the site of Jefferson's Monticello. It is most interesting that it was chosen to house the teacher education institution. On the other hand, the plant at Malang is composed of new buildings of a utilitarian type admirably suited to the purpose intended. The B I and B II teacher training courses meet in secondary schools at strategic locations in various parts of the country.

IV

During the past decade, Indonesia with the assistance of the United States and other friendly nations has made unprecedented progress in the development of her secondary and teacher education programs. She has a long way to go, but she has made a beginning. The Indonesians may forget individual United States citizens, but they will long remember the ideals of American education. We were in Indonesia when the foundations of her secondary and teacher education programs were being established. For this, the United States has just cause to be proud.

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Biographies of Educators; A Partial Bibliography of 153 Doctoral Dissertations

FRANKLIN PARKER
University of Texas

What made William Rainey Harper call John Dewey to the University of Chicago in 1894? Why did James Gordon Carter urge the Massachusetts School Board Secretaryship upon Horace Mann? What would have been the course of American education had Edward A. Sheldon not gone to Canada to bring back to Oswego, New York, Pestalozzian lesson plans? Suppose Jean Jacques Rousseau had not written *Emile*?

These were turning points in the history of education. What made them so?

The educators written about below are part of the mainstream of educational history. Each made a unique contribution. Each was concerned about raising the young in a better society.

History, that grand exploration of the panorama of mankind, has many facets. Biography, a piece of the whole, a part of the main, humanizes the past. It is hoped that the list of dissertations below, incomplete and containing inevitable error, may aid further scholarly research in educational history.

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The Prestige of Teachers in Indonesia¹

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Two studies of occupational prestige conducted during 1961 in Bandung (a modern city of one million inhabitants in West Java) help answer the following questions:

In the opinions of high-school students, what are the prestige levels of university, high-school, and elementary-school teaching compared with those of other occupations?

In the opinions of people from several levels of society, how does the elementary-school teacher rank in general prestige, income, and service-to-society as compared with six other common occupations?

High School Students' Views

In the first study, 939 students from randomly selected high schools in Bandung ranked 30 occupations according to their prestige. Of the students in this sample, 148 attended high schools whose task was the preparation of elementary-school teachers. The remaining 791 attended other types of secondary schools.

Among the 30 occupations to be ranked were university instructor, high-school teacher, and elementary-school teacher. As shown in Column I of Table 1, in the overall opinion of the 939 students the university instructor ranked second, the high-school teacher thirteenth, and the elementary-school teacher twenty-first.

Thus we see that in Indonesia, as also suggested by studies conducted in the United States (Counts, 1925; National Opinion Research Center, 1947), prestige is accorded to teachers in relation to the level on which they teach in the school system. The amount of education needed to fulfill each of these three kinds of teaching jobs in Indonesia may well

¹ The studies reported here were conducted in relation to a teacher-education project of the State University of New York, financed by the Ford Foundation. The writer gratefully acknowledges the aid of Research Assistant Soeparman and the Graduate Research Team of Padjadjaran University, Bandung.

exert an influence here. That is, there are many elementary-school teachers whose formal education has been only through the junior high school. Not until 1960 did the last of the junior-high-level teacher-education schools close, and thereafter a new teacher for elementary schools has needed a high-school degree. High-school teachers now need at least a bachelor's and preferably a master's degree for full certification. University instructors need at least a master's degree to qualify for full certification. (However, a quantity of older professors who were trained during Dutch colonial days have less formal education than that now required for new faculty members.)

Table 1
PRESTIGE RANKINGS OF OCCUPATIONS BY HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Ranked by Total Sample (N=939)</i>	<i>Ranked by Teacher- Training Students (N=148)</i>
Physician	1	2
University Teacher	2	1
Engineer (Civil, Electrical, Chemical)	3	4
Lawyer	4	5
Legislator	5	3
Government Bureau Chief	6	7
Military Officer	7	6
Head of a Government Industry	8	12
Embassy Employee	9	8
Director of ■ Private Industry	10	13
Police Officer	11	10
Airline Pilot	12	16
High-School Teacher	13	9
Newspaper Reporter	14	18
Artist	15	17
Farmer (Owns, Operates Farm)	16	15
Operator of Small Business	17	22
White-Collar Employee in Government Industry	18	11
Government Bureau Clerical Worker	19	21
Noncommissioned Military Officer	20	20
Elementary-School Teacher	21	14
Nurse/Midwife	22	19
Actor or Singer	23	23
Mechanic	24	26
Military Enlisted Man	25	24
Lunch-Stand Operator	26	27
Common Policeman	27	25

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Ranked by Total Sample (N=939)</i>	<i>Ranked by Teacher- Training Students (N=148)</i>
Taxi Driver/Truck Driver	28	28
Laborer	29	29
Pedicab Driver	30	30

Column II to Table 1 shows the opinions of the 148 students attending the high school which prepares elementary-school teachers. Here we find the university instructor ranked first, the high-school teacher ninth, and the elementary-school teacher raised to fourteenth. Therefore, as studies of occupational prestige in the United States have also suggested (National Opinion Research Center, 1947), people in a given vocational field generally rate occupations in their field higher than do people outside their area.

In this study the writer focused particular attention on comparisons of ratings of teaching positions with those of three other kinds of government employees: military, police, and civil.

In recent years Indonesia has been under military rule so that people in the armed forces appear to have gained power and privilege in a larger degree than military people enjoy in nations like the United States. Where, then, do high-school students place armed forces officers, noncommissioned officers, and enlisted men in comparison to teachers? And where do they place police officers and common policemen? These relationships are shown in Table 2.

Since Indonesia won its independence from Holland in 1950 after five years of revolution, many private industries owned by foreigners have been taken over as government industries, so that the ideal of "sosialisme Indonesia" is today being approached through great expansion of government controls. Table 2 helps answer the question: What status is accorded government employees who are involved with operating the increasingly powerful bureaus and industries? How does this status compare with that accorded teachers?

These results suggest that, at least from the standpoint of prestige-appeal to high-school students, the job of university professor competes very favorably with the highest government civil and military occupations. The vocation of high-school teacher appeals more than do those of clerical worker and other white-collar employees but less than those

Table 2
COMPARATIVE PRESTIGE RANKS OF GOVERNMENT POSITIONS:
TEACHERS, MILITARY, POLICE, CIVIL SERVANTS

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Rank Among 30 Occupations</i>	<i>Rank Among Government Positions</i>
University Teacher	2	1
National Legislator	5	2
Government Bureau Chief	6	3
Military Officer	7	4
Head of Government Industry	8	5
Embassy Employee	9	6
Police Officer	11	7
High-School Teacher	13	8
White-Collar Employee in Government Industry	18	9
Government Bureau Clerical Worker	19	10
Noncommissioned Military Officer	20	11
Elementary-School Teacher	21	12
Military Enlisted Man	25	13
Common Policeman	26	14

of commissioned military or police officer. The elementary teacher ranks near, though slightly below, noncommissioned military men and clerical workers.

Opinions from the General Population

In the second study 262 Bandung residents were asked to rank seven common occupations according to: (1) general prestige, (2) income apparently received, and (3) service-to-society.

The data were gathered through interviews by a team of graduate students who asked respondents to rank the following seven occupations: elementary-school teacher, small-shop owner, office worker, army lieutenant, household servant, mechanic, and pedicab driver (that is, a driver of a bicycle rickshaw). The list of occupations was limited to this number so that all of them could be kept in mind at one time by the interviewees (some of whom were illiterate) as they did the ranking.

The 262 interviewees were themselves drawn from six large occupational groupings as shown in Table 3. Although dependable Indonesian census data are not available to show how such groupings are proportioned in the general population, our observations of Indonesian society

Table 3
OCCUPATIONAL GROUPINGS OF 262 INTERVIEWEES

Grouping	N	Grouping	N
Professional-semiprofessional	82	Salesmen, Businessmen	29
Laborers	77	Students	24
Clerical Workers	32	Skilled Workers	18

suggest that the proportion in each grouping in the present study is not a completely accurate sampling of the general population. The writer estimates that the present sample includes too many professional-semiprofessional subjects and too few skilled workers and laborers. Despite this shortcoming, the sample does represent a range of socio-economic levels.

Likewise the 262 interviewees represented a range of ages. Eighteen were teen-agers, 115 were between twenty and twenty-nine years old, 72 were between thirty and thirty-nine years, and 57 were forty or older.

The results of the study are shown in Table 4 in terms of raw ranks as well as means of the rankings assigned by the 262 interviewees. Although the raw rankings show the general order in which the interviewees placed the occupations, the means yield more precise information about the closeness of the relationship between one occupation and another. (Mean rank was computed by totaling all rankings given to an occupation by the 262 subjects and dividing by 262.) For instance, in terms of overall prestige the actual distance between the lieutenant and the teacher is not a full step in mean rank but is only .22 (that is, 2.19—1.97). But the distance between teacher and office worker is well over a full step, or 1.37 (that is, 3.56—2.19). So we conclude that the occupations of lieutenant and teacher are more alike in prestige than are the occupations of teacher and office worker.

As Table 4 indicates, although the interviewees estimated the teacher's income to be at the median for the seven occupations, the teacher's service-to-society ranked at the top (with the army lieutenant a close second).

Rank difference (rho) correlations among the three criteria were as follows:

General prestige as related to income: .68

Table 4
RANKINGS OF PRESTIGE, INCOME, AND SERVICE-TO-SOCIETY

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>General Prestige</i>		<i>Estimated Income</i>		<i>Service-to- Society</i>	
	<i>Raw Rank</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>	<i>Raw Rank</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>	<i>Raw Rank</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>
Army Lieutenant	1	1.97	1	1.72	2	1.87
Elementary Teacher	2	2.19	4	3.88	1	1.62
Office Worker	3	3.56	5	4.66	3	3.89
Small-Shop Owner	4	3.93	2	2.48	5	5.92
Mechanic	5	4.06	3	3.09	4	4.45
Household Servant	6	6.01	7	6.71	7	6.20
Pedicab Driver	7	6.21	6	5.00	6	5.46

General prestige as related to service-to-society: .89

Service-to-society as related to income: .57

If we can assume that income and service-to-society are two of the factors usually contributing to the overall prestige of an occupation, it is apparent that for the 262 interviewees service-to-society was more important than income in determining the good name of an occupation.

When these data were analyzed according to the occupational groupings of interviewees and also age groupings, no significant differences in the ranks assigned to the elementary teacher was found, either between one occupational grouping and another or between one age level and another. A noticeable tendency for people over age 40 to assign more prestige to the teacher than to the lieutenant did not reach statistical significance.

Summary

Two studies of occupational prestige conducted in Bandung, Indonesia, provide data about: (1) the position of university, high-school, and elementary-school teaching compared with 27 other occupations as judged by 939 high-school students and (2) the position of elementary-school teaching compared with six other occupations as judged by 262 people drawn from a wide range of occupations and age levels.

The results showed that in the eyes of high-school students, the university teacher has very high prestige. He is second only to the physician, and he ranks above high-level government officials and business leaders. A high-school teacher ranks somewhat lower: not so high as

military officers, civilian pilots, or business and government officials but above farmers, small businessmen, and office workers. An elementary-school teacher is several steps lower: not so high as office workers and noncommissioned military officers but higher than actors, mechanics, and small shopkeepers.

High-school students preparing to be elementary-school teachers ranked the three teaching occupations higher than did students in general.

In the opinions of 262 people drawn from the general population, the elementary teacher's prestige is slightly below that of army lieutenant but greater than that of office worker, shop keeper, mechanic, household servant, and pedicab driver. Although the teacher is regarded as having a lower income than the army lieutenant, shop keeper, and mechanic, the teacher's service-to-society is considered greater.

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Uncle Sam — Image and Reality

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In the minds of the peoples of this world there are two images of the United States of America, one comforting, the other perplexing. The genial image is that generally held by Uncle Sam's nieces and nephews, the Americans, as we call them. The other is constructed by his more-distant relatives in the human family from the gossip and voices and photographs that come to them from his homeland. Image and reality are closer in the United States than anywhere else, as one would expect, and there the interested and humble visitor finds both a faith in his future, based upon a pride in his past achievements, and a determination to assist in realising that future. But for the image cherished by one American there are a half-dozen people in the rest of the world retaining a conflicting image. Uncle Sam has become a world figure, and, as you have been told before and most recently by Dr. McAulay in this journal,¹ once the image leaves its home it turns ugly.

But every now and then the ugly image abroad is faced with its much more pleasant reality in the person of a visiting American. Rarely does one meet outside America an American who is not personally both charming and admirable. It may be otherwise in fields other than education, to which my contacts are generally limited, but it is always interesting, far more so than meeting nationals of any other country in the world. No American abroad can fail to be amazed and bewildered at the public stance he is expected to adopt; he is backed up against the wall and carefully measured against his Uncle Sam. He is expected to defend any and every action, measure, idea, article, film, personality, custom and style that has ever come out of the United States. What he says in private (afterwards) must be undiplomatic and

¹ "U.S. Prestige in Australia, New Zealand and Other Countries," Vol. 38, No. 4 (January 1961), pp. 220-224.

probably unprintable. The right of reply is often lost to him, in spite of the courtesy of his hosts, because the information on which the questions are based is out-of-date, inaccurate, and frequently unconsciously distorted. My deepest sympathy lies with the man who resides temporarily abroad with his family, for on each member lies the heavy responsibility of acting as an ambassador, a role never dreamed of when the head of the house, as usually happens among teachers, decided to take his family along on a purely professional jaunt.

But spare a tear for the poor non-American grappling with the real American in his sitting-room and the image of Uncle Sam in his head. And here I offer some consolation to those Americans who have faced the barrage abroad and to those of you who have been perturbed by Dr. McAulay's report: This great curiosity in the United States is based upon both envy and need. We of the free world outside your country know in our hearts that we stand or fall by America's strength, and this knowledge is new and sometimes painful to us. We have been accustomed for years to sheltering beneath the power of the British Navy or the armies of European powers; now we are on our own and we must enter into defensive alliances one with another, and each with the United States. At the same time we know that the strength of America depends not on armed might or economic power but on the wholesomeness of her way of life. No nation in modern history has been as revolutionary in the concepts that made her independent as the United States was in 1776, and every nation established since then has been affected in thought or deed by that revolution. Its power lies in the high ideal enunciated—that the common man *can* govern himself—and powerfully demonstrated in the success of the American way of life. It is this success which makes us zealous in following as best we can the course of American history; it was the apparent collapse of that ideal that made the free world so bitterly critical of Senator McCarthy; and it is the difficulty of achieving that ideal that makes us follow blow by blow the course of school integration in the South.

Americans are beginning, I think, to grasp the notion that in their internal politics they are responsible not only to their state and to their country but also to the world—like all Americans we are, as I have said, the heirs of '76, though in apparently less degree. On the one

hand, then, we need to know as much as we can about the United States; on the other, we can't help being jealous of the success of that revolution. Rather like poor relations we are eager to justify our present situation, particularly our lack of material power, by criticising the achievements of the head of the family. We, in fact, are the nieces and nephews of our Uncle Sam—you are his children. If you can grasp this relationship you will be able to distinguish between the questions we ask about his doings because we *have* to be reassured about the goings-on in the Big House, and those more personal probes that spring from human failing. When you meet us face to face you will often find that we are caught between the two motives. Our Governor-General, Lord Cobham, some time ago illustrated this confusion nicely: he told the story of an American and an Englishman standing at a bus-stop when a large car sweeps past and splashes them both with mud; the Englishman's reaction is 'Comes the revolution and there won't be any big cars going round splashing people,' and the American's 'Some day I'm going to get me a big car like that.' One is a constructive reaction, the other destructive; New Zealanders, at any rate, are caught between the two.

Before showing how this understanding of our attitude to the United States can illuminate Dr. McAulay's points, I should state my qualifications for embarking on the topic. I am a New Zealander, born and bred, and before arriving for a year's study in the United States in February 1959 I had been out of my country only once—with our Occupation Force on a year's service in Japan in 1946-7. My subject is the literature of the British Commonwealth and I intended to study its relation to that of the United States; it is worth noting, I think, that the first course in my subject was begun at Dr. McAulay's own institution over fifteen years ago, demonstrating an awareness of its possibilities that is only now being approached by universities in the British Commonwealth. I taught freshman and sophomore courses at the University of Texas during the spring term and summer school, and at the University of California, Berkeley, in the autumn term. I am indebted to my students and members of the English Departments at those Universities for whatever understanding I have of American life—a subject, as you will have gathered from my preamble, about

which I was intensely curious. A year in Texas and California is no preparation for talking about the United States; it was my firm resolve on leaving your country not to make generalisations about 'America'; I do so now, and for the first time, to offer the suggestion that the ugly image of Uncle Sam is more our invention than your fault. As Dr. McAulay points out, and as I have stressed, it comes from our 'grudging admiration.'

Of Dr. McAulay's four points—formless foreign policy, the 'dollar wall', bad publicity and materialist philosophy—the financial difficulty in getting behind the image of Uncle Sam to its reality is probably the most obvious. The 'dollar wall' operates in two ways, as the American traveller abroad, especially if he is accompanied by his family, rapidly discovers. Manufactured goods are cheap in the United States and correspondingly dear abroad, primary products and service are dear at home and much cheaper abroad. The American abroad, on however pitiful an allowance, will not starve unless he tries to buy a car; in New Zealand, for instance, I feed a family of eight on the exchange equivalent of eighty dollars a month; when I arrived in the United States I bought a car, a 1954 Plymouth, for four hundred dollars—it would have cost me the equivalent of two thousand five hundred dollars in New Zealand; I have recently invested the family savings of nine hundred dollars in a 1937 Dodge! This imbalance is especially serious when, as Dr. McAulay says, it applies to American books and educational material. IF I could have obtained a permit to import James Gould Cozzens' *By Love Possessed* in the original American edition it would have cost me the equivalent of eight dollars here; I waited till the English edition came out at two and a half dollars—the American price was five dollars.

This time lag and the far too frequent sheer inability to get the American material one needs are serious barriers to mutual understanding. I do not know what can be done about it, and I feel it presumptuous to suggest that senior educationists in the United States should set themselves to study the problem when they are the very people doing so much to overcome it in different ways. I refer to the tremendous number of foreign students on every respectable campus of the United States—if wide-felt gratitude is a mark of beatitude the greatest saint in the world today is Senator Fulbright. Some sacrifice

has usually to be made by Americans studying abroad and by aliens studying inside the States, even under programmes more inclusive than the Fulbright, and although this may contrast unfavourably at first sight with the lavish provisions made by Russia and China, as outlined by Dr. McAulay, there is reason for congratulation rather than dismay. It is a personal and professional achievement to make the Fulbright programme; a communist invitation is extended only to carefully selected individuals. A Fulbright or similar participation in the American foreign scholar programme does not, for reasons I will mention in a moment, make one's position easier in the home community, but a communist invitation is, at least in this country, an invidious attention; such a guest stays generally only a short time, he does not reside in one part of the country and he is not often free from surveillance (if only because he has to use interpreters), so that his returning remarks are treated with well-deserved suspicion. And he must to some extent be aware that his remarks and his future will be of interest to the Party and the societies which exist for the cultivation of friendship with communist countries.

With the help of a Fulbright travel grant and the generosity of the heads and staffs of the English Departments I worked in, I scrambled over the dollar wall. Now I'm back on the outside wishing to heaven I'd done *all* my own laundry instead of most of it while I was there, wishing I'd resisted the temptation to take to the highways and see the country—and thus saved a few extra dollars to get the books I feel I need so badly. You see the trend of my thought? I'm beginning to concentrate on *things*. Like all non-Americans, and especially those who have visited your country, I'm beginning to think of the United States in material terms. This is the worst effect of the 'dollar wall'; I long for these books not because I can't pay for them, although I'd be paying more than twice their value, but because I can't get them.² I think this is the basic reason for the accusation of materialism against the United States. And if I am right it is we who are the materialists, as we linger over the car advertisements of the *Saturday Evening Post*. Anyone who has lived for any length of time in your country, *provided* they have not gone there to accumulate evidence to support the charge

² Import restrictions carefully (and meagrely) apportion our dollar reserves for the purchase of American goods.

of materialism, cannot give that hogwash a moment's serious consideration. When I think of the devoted labours of teachers of all ranks, of the financial sacrifices of those who comparatively late in life are seeking a college education, of the immense amount of unpaid effort put into community work—well, words fail me. Of course there are materialists in your nation as there are in ours but it is simply your great wealth of material goods, together with our desire to share in them, that produces our charge of materialism.

If the charge of materialism were seriously maintained then we should have to accuse you of the opposite of Dr. McAulay's other two points; we should resent your remorseless, materialistic and machiavelian imperialism, supported by a clever and ruthless and convincing publicity. But we don't—we can't: as Dr. McAulay points out and absolutely rightly, the other main charges against Uncle Sam are his apparent lack of foreign policy and his 'bad publicity abroad.' This confusion of charges reveals in fact a dichotomy, at least in this country and I suspect throughout Australasia, Indonesia, Malaya and India, in our way of life and in our thinking about ourselves as nations. Most people in this country, as I have suggested, are genuinely interested in how the heart of America beats—either from simple envy or from an honest appreciation of America's real contribution to our national security, and generally for both reasons. As more and more scholars return from the States and take up their positions in the community, as more Americans and their families come to live with us for a while, the ugly image is fading as it is faced with increasing evidence of the real nature of Uncle Sam and his children. I have noticed that my colleagues and friends are inclined to modify their remarks, with a nervous glance in my direction, when some topic connected with America comes into the conversation. (This is probably the main difficulty of communicating with one's compatriots when one returns; a man who likes anything American, their argument runs, must like everything American. I don't. Who does? And what is your honest opinion of the man who says he is one hundred per cent pro-American?)

And here I think we hit on the reason for our two-faced charge against the United States—the dichotomy that provokes the double charge of materialism and naiveté: Looking forward, we see a commonwealth of free nations supporting and supported by the United States,

and we are one of those nations. Looking back, we see the British Empire and our colonial status. No one is very popular in our country when he talks about 'the Empah'; we have done with the political (though not with the economic) subservience. But we are British largely by birth and almost completely by custom. Much of our tradition is an imitation of 'the Old Country,' of 'Home,' and it is all the tradition we have; like all parvenus we are busy tracing our descent back to King Alfred, back to Abraham. And until we create our own tradition of what it is to be a New Zealander we must cling to what we have imported. Our spiritual condition must be very like that of many thousands of Americans who over the years of your history have felt the attraction of Europe and have responded with the sincerest form of flattery—imitation. But I think I detected signs in the Midwest (and more in the West) that folks are now beginning to outgrow the basic insecurity of rejection or imitation of the East, and learning to stand on their own feet for what they are.

This is what *we* have to learn and it is not assisted by the minority in our community who unconsciously or deliberately hark back to the past or refer every decision to its counterpart in Britain. I do not believe that they represent the average New Zealander but they are a powerful voice in our affairs, especially in journalism and in education. They are supported by the businessman who, since he has to deal largely in English goods, naturally advertises his goods as 'British—and Best.' Enough of our journalists and teachers are so wedded to English ideas, all for our benefit, of course, that they are happy to seize any chance of reinforcing the ugly image of Uncle Sam. This is a serious charge but I think is justified by the picture that has been built up of life in the United States: teenage dope-fiends and delinquents in New York, gangsters in Chicago, cowboys in the West, film-stars in Hollywood—and slaves in the South.

There is no point, then, in listening to charges of bad publicity until you know the image that already exists and the motive for retaining it. This image, as I have indicated all along, is becoming less ugly, and I was particularly pleased with the coverage given President Kennedy's Cabinet and inauguration. But there is a danger here: once again we have set our sights high—we expect great things of your President. As ever, the American is expected to perform on a superhuman plane—

'distant, but decisive.' These are Dr. McAulay's words *but* they were applied by his Hong Kong merchant to the British in the East. And this brings me to Dr. McAulay's final point: Uncle Sam's indefinite foreign policy.

The only foreign policy we in the Pacific know is imperialism; as the Hong Kong merchant said: 'The British, when they governed the Far East, were realistic, distant but decisive.' If we in turn are realistic we know we haven't the power to be decisive. The only thing we know is that we don't want another imperialism. So we accuse Uncle Sam of not being imperialistic i.e. of not having what we can recognise as a definite foreign policy! This is absurd and dangerous because it cloaks the real situation: we have to learn the lesson of mutual cooperation and self-discipline enunciated in the Declaration of Independence. Every teacher knows you can make a child learn *things* like the multiplication table, but every parent knows that, with the teacher's help, the basic lesson in decent citizenship can be taught only by example. As nations we are children and if we are to live together in one family we have to learn that the United States can have no "foreign policy." We have to get rid of the ugly image of Uncle Sam and recognise the one reality that is his nature—government of all the people, by all the people, for all the people. That this example is difficult to follow is demonstrated daily in your civic and state affairs; that we are learning it slowly is obvious in the development of the British Commonwealth. In these United States of Britain we have eventually to rid ourselves of a false image of John Bull, the ugly aftertaste of imperialism. And in the secession of our slave states, the Union of South Africa, we are facing your situation of one hundred years ago. Have we learnt enough from your Union to be able to preserve our own? Or have we also to learn the lesson of civil war in South Africa, of war between the states of the Commonwealth?

What we have to learn to practise in the searching tests ahead is that union is strength. The best demonstration of this in the world today is the United States of America. Uncle Sam's 'foreign' policy has been the gradual accretion of states to the Union; although that process is possibly not concluded it cannot be debated that America's power is not in her territorial holdings. Nor ought it to be thought that it lies in military or economic might; that would result in a foreign policy

‘realistic, distant, but decisive’—massive retaliation, in other words. America’s power lies in the image of Uncle Sam cherished by his children and its very power is shown in the difficulty we have in approaching that reality, and in the ease with which we fit him with a false mask. For the Revolution of 1776 is still revolutionary to many of us and we approach these new notions reluctantly and at the same time inevitably.

It is for this reason that I have ventured to take up Dr. McAulay’s revelations and turn them deeper and more towards ourselves. Dr. McAulay is dead right in everything he says, but the fault lies in ourselves and not in the Stars and Stripes. If you are told again and again that your foreign policy and your economics and your publicity and your philosophy are found wanting in the eyes of the world, you will begin to believe it and you will lose your nerve. You will begin to distrust your Declaration of Independence, that revolution you enunciated and to which you are committed and in which you are still involved. And if you falter what will happen to us? We shall have to say that Uncle Sam *is* ugly, that the false image is his reality, and we will have as young nations to turn elsewhere for guidance, as some of us are already beginning to. We will end in the United States of Russia, and that will be the end of Uncle Sam.

If I have at times been rhetorical and opinionated in this article it is because I am passionately convinced, with head and heart, that, because the United States is a world power and because its power resides in the revolutionary idea of government by cooperation, Uncle Sam’s foreign policy can only be defensive—in the sense of powerfully defending that idea within and without your country. He cannot have an offensive foreign policy because that would involve you all in conquest and control, and that is the only foreign policy the world has known until our time. It is the sheer novelty of your beliefs that makes it absolutely impossible for you to conduct a foreign policy on traditional lines: “realistic, distant but decisive.” Your foreign policy must remain idealistic, cooperative *and* indecisive, for it is we who under this new foreign policy must make the decisions, not our lords and masters. It is the example of the United States that has caused the collapse of imperialism throughout the world; in the face of a new and dreadful imperialism you cannot falter.

I therefore move a vote of confidence in the real Uncle Sam, and am seconding that motion with deeds. I have filed immigration papers with your Embassy in my country; my wife and I and our six children are all prepared to seek United States citizenship. This is the most serious decision I have had to make in my life, but it is the same decision that almost all our forebears, yours and mine, have had to make in their time. I have made it in the face of the arguments that I should devote my energies to rectifying our ugly image of Uncle Sam, that I am deserting my post of duty, that it is a vote of no-confidence in the country of my birth. These are unanswerable unless the larger view is taken that I have proposed: the strength of the free world rests now and for some time to come in the power of the United States. I want to add my mite to that power directly and not indirectly.

I believe that the abilities of myself and my wife and the potential of our family are worthy additions to that power. But the deciding factor is my profession of teacher; I know that during my year in the United States I developed my professional ability enormously, and this improvement was expressed in my teaching and derived, as it is in most teachers, from the results I achieved in my professional discipline, the literature of the British Commonwealth. Universities in the United States are pioneering this subject and it will be of increasing importance in the whole English-speaking world; by assisting that development I can best devote my life-work, my 'talent,' to establishing the true image of Uncle Sam not only in his own country but everywhere. This vital task will not be accomplished until the ugly image is smashed, and that will not be done by you but by each new nation as it shakes off its colonial habit of mind and becomes conscious of its destiny as an equal partner with Uncle Sam in the future of mankind.

I believe that I can demonstrate this most effectively in my discipline in the United States by showing the country of my birth and others like it in the British Commonwealth the intrinsic value of their own literature and its place in the development of their nationhood. It is for this reason I have made my decision and can say with James Joyce 'I go to encounter the reality of experience and to forge in the smithy of my soul the uncreated conscience of my race.' I am preparing to meet Uncle Sam face to face, and with the millions of the free world I say to him: 'Old father, stand me now and ever in good stead.'

“When the Unwilling Asks the Unable . . .”

SAM ADAMS and ROBERT W. KRIEGER
Louisiana State University

It was not a good year to start a university. The year 1860 was as good as any other year for many purposes, but not for starting a university. Yet that is the year Louisiana State University started—January 2, 1860. In 1861, the first disaster struck, when President W. T. Sherman resigned to accept a commission in the *Union Army*. The ultimate humiliation came later, when this same former president (who was *not* on military leave) put the torch to the State of Georgia. Presumably it was a combination of bankruptcy and humiliation that caused the University to suspend operations from 1863 to 1865. Then in 1869, the school house burned. The University was not off to an auspicious beginning.

And, so far as the records show, the University managed to meet these crises without setting up any committees. It really is too bad, since it would be easy to envision the activities of program committees, coordinating committees, invitation committees, decorations committees and many others each time the University started or stopped operations. And doubtless there should have been a small committee with an innocuous title whose task was to protect “the image of the University” while former President Sherman marched through Georgia.

Indeed, so far as the catalogues indicate, no formal committee structure appeared on the scene until 1908. At that time, twelve committees were listed: Athletics, Candidates for Degrees, Classification, Commencement Exercises, Entrance Examinations, Graduate Courses, Library, Medals, Music, Speakers and Lecturers, Student Organizations, and Student Publications. Some of these committees still exist. However, in a modern organization, the work of several of these groups has been taken over by the Registrar’s Office and data processing equipment. The conferring of medals no longer requires a university-wide committee. The Music Committee, whose function was to arrange

for music at the daily student-body assemblies, was short lived.

The list of committees effectively reflects the expanding function of the University. For example, in 1913, some new committees were "High School Rally" and "Summer School." A "Registration" committee was looking for better ways. It is a sad commentary that, half a century later, we are still looking.

The influence of World War I on university life is shown in that the 1918 Catalogue lists committees entitled "War Courses," "War Savings" and "War Service." Also, a committee on fraternities had been added.

LSU operated for many years in buildings that had been vacated by the Army. However, this site was not particularly desirable, either as to size or location. Thus, in 1923, a "Greater University" committee was established. While the title was somewhat subtle, the intent was perfectly apparent. The efforts of this committee must have been fruitful, since the 1928 Catalogue shows an "Instruction at the Old Site" Committee. Actually, the transition to the new campus, initiated in 1925, was not completed until 1932.

The committee structure at LSU underwent several changes during the interim from 1928 to World War II. For example, in 1933, there were 22 committees; in 1938, there were only 13 of them. In 1943, there were two committees that were war-related—the "Defense Council" and "Selective Service." Also, by 1943, there was a discipline committee, indicated that the maintenance of discipline had become a function of the University as a whole rather than of the ROTC unit.

By 1948, the war-related committees had been replaced by the Veterans' Committee. Also, a new committee had been established to cope with a perennial problem. This group had a descriptive title—"The Use of University Facilities by Outside Agencies." Shortly thereafter, the inevitable occurred. The structure of the University had become too complex for the administration to make direct committee appointments, so the "Committee on Committees" was brought into being, indicating perhaps the ultimate step in the structural evolution of committees.

Committees have come and gone—or come and stayed, as the case may be—and the appearance, persistence or disappearance of each committee sheds light on the ever-changing problems of a university.

There are those who say that a committee is established “when the unwilling asks the unable to do the impossible.” And the traditional fumbling and inefficiency of certain committees caused one wag to describe a camel as a horse put together by a committee. But, despite their obvious limitations, committees have long performed—and continue to perform—a vital role in the operations of a university.

The Organization and Control of Educational Television

ROBERT L. HILLIARD¹

Educational television may be divided into four major areas of administrative control: 1) community organizations, 2) educational institutions, 3) state agencies and other governmental groups, and 4) private organizations.²

Open-circuit station operation and closed-circuit broadcasting both may be included in all of the above categories, although in varying degrees. At least sixty non-commercial educational television stations are on the air; about 300 educational institutions make use of closed-circuit television; and almost one thousand school districts make regular use of some form of televised instruction which may originate from any of the four sources indicated above.³

Community Organizations.

The St. Louis, Missouri educational station, KETC, is typical of the organizational pattern of community controlled stations. The operational board is called the St. Louis Educational Television Commission; the Board of Trustees is composed of fourteen leaders in the fields of education, business, labor, and civic affairs. The Mayor and Supervisor of St. Louis County appoint the board members from lists submitted by the heads of St. Louis' foremost educational institutions. KETC, as a non-commercial station, does not carry advertising, and its financing comes largely from private sources, and partially from foundations and research groups.⁴

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² *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956), p. 35.

³ *Educational Television Factsheet* (Washington: Joint Council on Educational Television, April, 1960, p. 1.

⁴ *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956), pp 35-6.

The Commission, at the outset of broadcasting, placed full responsibility for administration in the hands of the station management, men who had experience in commercial television production. An Executive Director, experienced in educational administration governs the general policy of the station. An Operations Manager governs programming.⁵

The initiation of televised education, no matter what form of administrative control it takes, necessitates forceful administrative decisions. KETC's manager several years ago, George L. Arms, stated that

Students are not going to storm the academic bastions demanding that college courses be put on television; Academicians are not going to demand the right of exposure to the thousands instead of the tens; and educational television station operators themselves are in no position to bring pressure to bear for this kind of evolution. . . . We now need immediate recognition of the implications by key administrators who have the willingness to orient their school systems, college or state organizations to a continued series of controlled experiments in various areas.⁶

One question raised is to what extent can the dynamics of administration in this case be collaborative or democratic, as opposed to autocratic.

Educational station WQED in Pittsburgh is another example of the community organization. The operating group is the Pittsburgh Educational Television Association. Twenty-five members of the community, from various professions, comprise the Board of Directors. Funds are secured primarily from foundations, public contributions, and from a small assessment per pupil in the public schools.⁷

Collaboration marks the administration of programming at WQED. The Pittsburgh Public Schools do not control in-school programming; it is controlled by the station. A committee representing various school districts meets regularly to decide on policy in relation to schedules, subjects, teachers, and so forth. Consultants are frequently called in. A very close liaison is maintained with the station.⁸

WCET in Cincinnati is licensed to the Greater Cincinnati Television Educational Foundation. This is a community organization of eighteen

⁵ Paul A. Greenmeyer and Louis T. Iglehart, "TV and the Crisis in Education," Reprint from *Broadcast News*, October, 1956, p. 2.

⁶ *Ibid.* p. 4.

⁷ *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956), p. 37.

⁸ *The Superintendent's Viewpoint on Educational Television* (New York: Thomas Alva Edison Foundation, 1959), p. 10.

representatives elected by more than fifty educational groups. Funds for operation come from educational institutions, public contributions, and commercial stations. The Foundation does not have full administrative control, however, but is advised on programming by a Citizen's Advisory Committee, which represents various business, civic, cultural and professional organizations. In addition, committees representing public and private schools advise on the development of in-school programs.⁹

Many other community sponsored educational stations operate in the same manner. KQED in San Francisco is licensed to the Bay State Educational Television Association, a non-profit group which has a Board of Directors representing elementary and secondary schools, colleges, universities, and cultural and civic groups. Boston's WGBH-TV is operated with the advice and cooperation of a Council consisting of eleven cultural and educational institutions in the Boston area. Foundations and public subscriptions financed the construction of the station, and are assisting in the current building of new facilities following a destructive fire. Foundations, business concerns, institutions, and individuals financed the construction of WTVS, Detroit, which is guided by a Board of Trustees consisting of twelve members representing cultural and educational groups. The operational expenses are divided among the institutions providing programs.¹⁰

In most instances there is much collaborative planning and administration among community groups, educational institutions, and governmental representative, such as superintendents of public school systems.

The Chicago City Junior College has experimented in television instruction over community sponsored station WTTW. The experiment was led by the General Superintendent of Schools of the Chicago Board of Education, by the Dean of the Chicago City Junior College, and by the Executive Director of WTTW. The courses were prepared by teachers in direct cooperation with producers and directors of the station.¹¹

⁹ *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956), p. 38.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 39-41.

¹¹ Clifford G. Erickson and Hymen M. Chausow, *The Chicago City Junior College Experiment in Offering College Courses For Credit Via Open Circuit Television* (Chicago: Chicago City Junior College, 1959), p. ii.

The deans of the junior college branches gave administrative support without which the many complex problems presented by the TV College program could not have been resolved. The registrars, directors of counseling, and counseling staffs adapted usual procedures to the new television student body. The television coordinators provided liaison with the TV College office for efficient operation of the instructional and research program at the branch level. The department chairmen and the department faculties of the courses involved in the experiment made important contributions. Significant roles were played by teachers of control classes and by television section teachers.

This experiment in extending the community service of the Chicago City Junior College continued to receive the financial support of the Fund for the Advancement of Education through a second year grant of \$185,000. The first year grant of \$165,000 and a third year grant of \$125,000 will bring the total support received from the Fund for the Advancement of Education to a total of \$475,000 for the period July 1956 to June 1959.

It is worthy of note that the representatives of the Fund for the Advancement of Education gave the Chicago Board of Education and the Chicago City Junior College a free hand in the development of the experiment after the original basic plan had been established. The staff of the Fund under the direction of Dr. Alvin C. Eurich has continued to give much appreciated encouragement and wise counsel.

The Chicago Board of Education in its 1959 budget has made provision for the continuation of TV College into a fourth year beginning in Fall 1959.¹²

An important point is that the foundation providing research funds did not in any way interfere with the administration of the program. The Fund for the Advancement of Education left control of the project entirely in the hands of the Chicago Board of Education and the Chicago City Junior College.¹³

In summary, the community sponsored station is under the control, usually, of a non-profit corporation, especially set up for the development of an educational television station. Educational, cultural and civic groups, among others, work together to form the corporation, establish the station, and direct its operation. Representatives from these groups and from the community as a whole are represented on the controlling board of the station. The financial support for such stations

¹² Clifford G. Erickson and Hymen M. Chausow, *The Chicago City Junior College Experiment in Offering College Courses For Credit Via Open Circuit Television* (Chicago: Chicago City Junior College, 1959), p. iii.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. iii.

usually comes from private and public sources. These include contributions from institutions participating in the programming, from foundations, and individuals, and business corporations, and from public fund-raising campaigns.¹⁴

Educational Institutions

Many educational stations are operated by individual institutions. In most cases these are state colleges and universities, with the funds for operation coming frequently from legislative appropriations. Considerable financial backing has come from foundations and from other non-public sources.¹⁵

The University of Houston's KUHT was backed primarily from the General Operating Fund of the University, with some support coming from foundations and businesses.¹⁶

KOMU-TV at the University of Missouri and WOI-TV at Iowa State College operate on commercial channels, and although construction costs were defrayed by university funds, the advertising revenue provides the operating costs.¹⁷

North Carolina's WUNC-TV has three separate producing studios, at the University of North Carolina in Chapel Hill, at the State College in Raleigh and at the Women's College in Greensboro. The single channel, however, is a function of the Consolidated University of North Carolina and is therefore responsible to the state administration and legislature. It was established through a combination of state, foundation and community support, and operates primarily through state and foundation funds.

The Michigan State University station, WKAR-TV, operates within a division of the state administration. The station is licensed to the Michigan State Board of Agriculture, which is the legal administrative agency governing the university itself. The Board of Agriculture appoints a Director of Television Development to administer the station directly. The station is treated as a section of the university, and funds

¹⁴ *Educational Television for Your Community*. (Published jointly by the Educational Television and Radio Center, the Joint Council on Educational Television, and the National Association of Educational Broadcasters. No date), p. 19.

¹⁵ *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956, p. 42.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 43.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 42, 43.

are allocated to its operation much as they are allocated to other academic departments of the university.¹⁸

Another form of administration of a station at an individual educational institution is that at WHA-TV, the University of Wisconsin. The station is officially licensed to a council representing various governmental and educational groups in the state. However, complete control of operations remains in the hands of the university itself. The operations of the station are conducted entirely on the university campus.¹⁹

A further form of administration and operation is in evidence at the University of Washington, which owns and operates KDTS-TV, but which has entered into contracts with other educational institutions to share operating expenses. A Program Advisory Board represents all the participating schools. This Board makes suggestions to the University concerning policy and programming.²⁰

Closed-circuit operations are confined almost entirely to individual educational institutions, although several groups of institutions have established cooperative facilities, operating, in effect, a closed-circuit network. Closed-circuit facilities have been especially effective in various areas of professional education, especially in the sciences.²¹

In the college or university, closed-circuit operations are under the control of individual departments or divisions, usually either the Department of Speech (and/or Drama, and/or Radio-Television), or the Division or Department of Visual-Aids. The chairman of the department concerned administers the closed-circuit programming under the direction of a college-wide committee which determines, usually under the leadership of the Dean of Academic Affairs, the needs of the college and of individual subject areas.²²

In summary, a number of educational stations are licensed to and operated by individual institutions. The cost may be subsidized by the institution or by special contributions of governmental or community groups. Frequently, stations licensed to single institutions are operated

¹⁸ *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956), p. 44.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 44-5.

²⁰ *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956), p. 46.

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 55-6.

²² Closed-circuit television is not analyzed in this paper because such an analysis would require extended space.

in cooperation with other groups which share financial support.²³

State Agencies and Other Governmental Groups

Since the reservation of educational television channels by the Federal Communications Commission in 1952, almost all of the states have set up commissions or study groups to determine the possibilities and values of state use of these channels. In many states the legislatures have appropriated funds for the financing of stations.²⁴ The Alabama legislature's action is somewhat typical. It created a state educational television commission and appropriated a half-million dollars for constructions of stations. Subsequently, the State Building Commission appropriated an additional sum, and with donations from foundations and commercial groups, the state had over one million dollars with which to begin operations.²⁵ Four stations are now operating, under the supervision of the Alabama Educational Television Commission.

The state of Tennessee used a somewhat different approach. The legislature created the Tennessee Educational Television Commission, with fifteen members appointed by the governor. The legislature appropriated funds, to be matched by individual communities.²⁶ The city of Memphis, for example, through a community group, the Memphis Community Television Foundation, established an operating station.²⁷ In this instance the state government has ultimate control of the station, but the immediate, direct operation is under the aegis of the community group, which enlists the cooperation of educational institutions.

Probably the most dramatic educational experiment in the country administered by a governmental organization (in this instance, the Superintendent of Schools as representative of the State Board of Education), is the closed-circuit direct teaching operation in the Hagerstown, Washington County, Maryland school system. William M. Brish,

²³ *Educational Television for Your Community* (Published jointly by the Educational Television and Radio Center, the Joint Council on Educational Television, and the National Association of Educational Broadcasters. No date.), p. 15.

²⁴ *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956), pp. 47-8.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 48.

²⁶ *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956), p. 49.

²⁷ *Educational Television Status Report* (Washington: Joint Council on Educational Television, March, 1960), p. 2.

as Superintendent of Schools for Washington County, insisted on careful administrative decision-making and collaborative planning. "To be effective, television experiences must be properly planned by teachers and leaders with a sound philosophy of education."²⁸ Superintendent Brish set up four steps in the planning process: 1) selection of instructional content, 2) presentation of lessons, 3) transmission of lesson, 4) reception in the classroom. In the Hagerstown project all four steps are controlled by the personnel of the school system. Mr. Brish stated, however, that cooperative work between the stations broadcasting the material and the schools and school systems using the material is necessary for effectively determining and establishing the resources and supplying the needs.²⁹

The development of the program, with its concurrent development of administrative functions, may serve as a guide for similar programs, although on a smaller scale, throughout the country. When the Washington County Board of Education was planning a senior high school building in 1954, it believed that facilities should be provided for the eventual use of television in the classroom. The Board inquired of manufacturers, networks, consultants and other professional groups about the uses and facilities for television. At the same time The Radio-Electronics-Television Manufacturers Association and the Fund for the Advancement of Education decided to sponsor a study of television as a means of instruction in a school system. The Washington County school system was invited to submit a proposal for using television in this manner. A five year proposal was submitted and accepted. Cooperative and continuous planning was undertaken by various groups, including school personnel and interested citizens of the community. No hierarchy of administration was yet developed. Those on the lower echelons, the teachers who would have to participate in a positive manner in the experiment, were actively involved in the planning and during the first year of the project were given an orientation to the project through exploration of techniques and ways of measurement. A steering administrative committee of representatives from the schools and from the community developed the plans, and a six weeks

²⁸ *The Superintendent's Viewpoint on Educational Television* (New York: Thomas Alva Edison Foundation, 1959), p. 3.

²⁹ *The Superintendent's Viewpoint on Educational Television* (New York: Thomas Alva Edison Foundation, 1959), p. 4.

workshop was held in which teachers, principals, PTA leaders and consultants from various subject matter and geographical areas joined in the planning. As the planning continued and discussions took place, constant re-evaluation of goals and alternatives took place. Under the guidance of the steering committee, and with the assistance of the staff members of the county school system and the approval of the Board of Education, actual course plans were worked out by teaching teams and telecasting began. The administrative power was still, essentially, in the hands of the Superintendent of Schools but its exercise seemed to be, in terms of the hierarchal structure, on a broad democratic base. During subsequent semesters of telecasting further cooperative evaluation and changing of goals and practices went on.³⁰

A new factor in educational television is the federal government. Federal Aid to Educational Television legislation, enacted in early 1962, provides thirty-two million dollars over a five year period, with a maximum of one million dollars for any state, "to assist (through matching grants) in the construction of educational television broadcasting facilities."³¹

The administration and control of new stations is indicated in the legislation:

1) that the applicant is A) an agency officer responsible for the supervision of public elementary or secondary education or public higher education within that State, or within a political subdivision thereof, B) the State educational television agency, C) a college or university deriving its support in whole or in part from tax revenues, or D) a nonprofit foundation, corporation, or association which is organized primarily to engage in or encourage educational television broadcasting . . .³²

The act further states that:

Nothing . . . shall be deemed . . . "to authorize any department, agency, officer, or employee of the United States to exercise any direction, supervision, or control over educational television broadcasting or over curriculum, program of instruction, or personnel of any educational institution, school system, or educational broadcasting station or system."³³

³⁰ *Washington County Closed-Circuit Educational Television Project* (Hagerstown, Maryland: The Board of Education, 1959), pp. 2-3, 5-8, 15.

³¹ Public Law 87-447, section 390.

³² *Ibid.*, section 392, paragraph (1).

³³ *Ibid.*, section 397, paragraph (2).

Thus far the federal government has had no direct control over educational television, although the disclaimer affidavit in the National Defense Education Act may be construed as a measure of control in the granting of funds for educational television experimentation under Title VII of the Act.

The state governments, at the present time, seem to exercise the greatest control over educational television, compared to federal and local government control. Under many state-wide plans stations are licensed to a state educational agency or to a specially created state educational television authority. The stations are financed, in whole or in part, by state funds.³⁴

Private Organizations

Many commercial stations throughout the country offer their facilities for the production or telecasting of educational programs. For example, watch a network-distributed chemistry course at 6:30 A.M.³⁵ Until Philadelphia's educational station was built, regular programming was offered over commercial stations in the city.³⁶ For a number of years station WRGB in Schenectady provided time and financial aid for programs in cooperation with more than 100 educational, historical and cultural institutions of eastern New York and Western New England. The programs were planned and guided by a cooperative group, the Mohawk-Hudson Council on Educational Television.³⁷ One of the most significant uses of commercial time involved the New York State Education Department's programming over station WPIX in New York City. The administration of the programming was ostensibly under the direction of the State Education Commissioner, but the actual executive director of the project, James McAndrew, was appointed by the State Board of Regents to administer the program. Although ultimate control was exercised by the state government, which supplied the needed funds, Mr. McAndrew acted in a sense, as an academic Dean in cooperation with the State Department of Education.

³⁴ *Educational Television for your Community*. (Published jointly by the Educational Television and Radio Center, the Joint Council on Educational Television, and the National Association of Educational Broadcasters. No date.), p. 16.

³⁵ *New York Times*, May 1, 1960, Section IV, p. 7.

³⁶ *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956), p. 50.

³⁷ *Report of the New York State Temporary Study Committee on Educational Television* (New York: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956), p. 52.

The commercial station was literally hired by the state government, at a fee, to transmit the programs. The commercial station had no voice in the program content.³⁸

Another form of commercial station use occurred at the University of Michigan some years ago, before the university had its own station. WWJ-TV, Detroit, offered the university free time and services, as well as a weekly sum of \$100 to meet expenses for the televising of courses. The university had control over all programming, however, and a Television Office, a part of the academic hierarchy of the university, was formed to supervise and direct all television operations.³⁹

The place of the college and university as the administering organization in the operation of educational television stations differs from the role of the college and university in the administering of AM and FM radio stations. The latter was a frequent practice. The costs of television, however, make it virtually impossible for any single college—or even school system—to develop an educational television station alone. A transmitter and equipment would cost about \$400,000. An annual operating budget would be about \$350,000. An exception might be when the institution is the only one in the geographical area and may receive formal financial support from many community groups.

In most instances it is possible to develop a local educational TV station only through cooperative support by all local school administrative units, and by all professional and cultural organizations of the community, all of which share in deciding whether or not such a station is actually needed.⁴⁰

The pattern that has developed, especially in metropolitan centers, is one where a non-profit corporation has been formed by community groups representing various cultural, civic, educational and business groups of the city. WNDT in New York City is an example of such an effort. The administration of the station is ostensibly the community board, but the actual operation of the station is put under a professional station manager who programs with the consultation and advice of the

³⁸ *NET News* (Ann Arbor: National Educational Television and Radio Center, Autumn, 1958), p. 3.

³⁹ Garnet R. Garrison, "Television at the University of Michigan," Reprinted from *The Journal of the AER*, January, 1953, p. 1.

⁴⁰ Franklin Dunham, Ronald R. Lowdermilk, and Gertrude G. Broderick, *Television in Education*, United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957), p. 47.

board and of community and educational councils. The administration of the educational station, otherwise, is similar to that of a commercial station.⁴¹

The work and increasing importance of the National Educational Television and Radio Center in the past few years have given strong impetus to the establishment of new ETV stations, and NET has lent both moral and material support to the growth of educational television.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, p. 51.

PEABODY BIMONTHLY BOOKNOTES

Selected Professional and Cultural Books for a Teacher's Library

NOVEMBER, 1962

Booknotes Committee: Susan B. Riley, William W. Fitzgerald
Isaac Copeland, Chairman

Secretary to the Committee: Leslie Noel

Annotators for this Issue: Phillip M. Slates, Scott S. Withrow, Jack Allen, Myrtle Bomar, John E. Brewton, H. Craig Sipe, Becky Daughety, Robert E. Cleary, Katherine Hall, Warren I. Titus, Margaree J. Knight, Jewell A. Phelps, W. S. DeLoach, Anna Loe Russell, Susan B. Riley, William Alexander, L. S. Wrightsman, David J. Mullen, Edwin Anderson, Clifton L. Hall, Robert A. Davis, S. C. Ashcroft, Julius Seeman, Sheldon Rosenberg, William J. Griffin, John Hoskins.

Children's Literature

ADRIAN, MARY. *Mystery of the Night Explorers*. Hastings House, 1962. 116 p. \$2.95.

This story is to help children who have some interest in nature and its secrets increase that interest and quicken the power to observe. Two boys build a tree house with help, from which they can see things at night. The mystery is added to by some treasure hunt clues left by their grandfather, that leads to a happy and surprising discovery. For grades about three to eight.

BAILEY, CAROLYN. *Flertail*. Walck, 1962. 90 p. \$2.00.

A western squirrel with a golden tail moved East, where the Nutting family of squirrels could not believe that he was a real squirrel. After many adventures and living a while on the mountain things, he is accepted. A tale for children about 7 to 10.

BEATTIE, JANET. *Poof Poof*. Whitman, 1962. unpag. \$2.50.

Poof Poof was a French poodle and he did not look like other dogs. He tried to act like them, and it was funny the kind of trouble he got into. Then finally he decided he had better just be Poof Poof and be different. Then he was happy, and the other

dogs liked him better. A story for dog lovers about five to seven.

BELMONT, PAULINE. *Law, the Police Horse*. Reilly & Lee, 1962. unpag. \$2.75.

Beautiful photography featuring a beautiful horse makes this a book beginning readers will enjoy. Large clear type, and brief sentence structure are used in the text and are synchronized with the illustrations so well that the accomplishment of reading without help will be very encouraging to those with problems.

BEYER, ERNESTINE. *Story of Little Big*. Reilly & Lee, 1962. unpag. \$2.75.

Written for beginning readers, this attractive book tells about a lonely Indian boy who is searching for a playmate. Nice use is made with words that sound alike, and there is enough repetition to charm a young reader. Beautiful two toned illustrations are found on each page and add much to the style of the book. A very nice contribution.

BISHOP, CURTIS. *Little League Double Play*. Lippincott. 189 p. \$2.95.

Ronnie lived with his aunt and had everything that she thought could make a boy happy, but he wanted to stay home in the summer and play Little League Baseball instead of going to camp. There came the problem. Elementary readers will enjoy

the way he worked out his problem, and will be interested in what happened to their lives as ■ result.

BUSH-BROWN, LOUISE. *Young America's Garden Book*. Scribner's, 1962. 279 p. \$4.50.

The author, ■ well known authority on gardening, presents a practical handbook on the science of gardening together with over thirty carefully planned projects with flowers, fruits and vegetables described in detail for those who work with young people in family or classroom projects.

CEDER, GEORGIANA. *Winter Without Salt*. Morrow, 1962. 125 p. \$2.75.

A story of early days in Kentucky, Peter's father had been killed by Indians, and Peter had all the hatred of a frontiersman for all the Indians. Through a long series of incidents Peter comes to know that there are good Indians, and that the salt of friendship makes life more worth while. For boys about 8 to 12.

DEJONG, DOLA. *The House on Charlton Street*. Scribner's, 1962. 157 p. \$2.95.

This is a mystery story that goes back to the early days of Greenwich Village. The old house had stories about it in the neighborhood when the Bartletts bought it. As the story unravels, David, in particular, is intrigued and finds many interesting side lines, none of which are as surprising as the secret of the old house which is discovered by the slamming of a door. For reading at about the 4th to 6th grade level.

DERLETH, AUGUST. *Sweet Land of Michigan*. Duell Sloan, 1962. 149 p. \$2.95.

Mr. Derleth has told of the dispute over the land where Toledo, Ohio now stands. With his usual skill he puts real thrills into the struggle of the Michigan-Ohio story with militia called on both sides. There is added the fascinating story of a surveyor trip clear to the northern Peninsula in the days when there were only Indians. Excellent for junior high school reading.

DOLCH, EDWARD AND MARGARUITE. *Stories from Spain*. Garrard, 1962. 167 p. \$2.75.

Well edited for second and third grades, these magical stories of animals and witches and hidden treasures will make absorbing reading for those who love a good fairy tale. The introduction of Spanish words and Spanish atmosphere give additional charm. Colorful full page illustrations, a dozen or more, occur throughout the book and add much to its enjoyment.

FOX, CHARLES. *Mr. Stripes the Gopher*. Reilly & Lee, 1962. unp. \$2.75.

Written for nature study in the first and second grades, this study follows the activities of a pair of ground squirrels throughout a year. True to life photographs make the account real to the child; the pictures are attractive and at the same time extremely informative. A very nice contribution.

FRANCOISE. *Minous*. Scribner's, 1962. unp. \$2.95.

Nannette has lost her cat and must go up and down the streets of Paris hunting him. She does not know yet that cats always come back. Primary groups will enjoy the delightful story and the charming four color pictures by this author illustrator. Sturdy format, childish illustrations, and well done story make it a very desirable edition.

FRANKENBERG, ROBERT. *All Aboard for Tin Cup*. Scribner's, 1962. 150 p. \$2.50.

Mrs. Gottlieb with four children made the trip to Tin Cup, which used to be Virginia City, Colorado. Mr. Gottlieb had gone ahead and bought a gold mine. When the family arrived he was forced to tell them that the mine was of no value. Tag, 12, and Annie, 11, were so sure that they wanted to stay that they all settled down in a small miner's shack. Tiny, 5, and Winnie, crippled made it crowded. How it all worked out is of interest.

FUNK, TOM. *I Read Signs*. Holiday, 1962. unp. \$2.50.

Beginning readers will be delighted to experiment with reading the signs which appear everywhere in the delightful story. Lively three color drawings will fascinate them and the humor of it all will bring them all to re-read it many times. A very nice contribution to the collection for this group.

GIBSON, ELLA. *Martha's Secret Wish*. Lothrop, 1962. 174 p. \$3.00.

Martha was lonesome most of the time because her mother was away at work, but she felt quite lonely one afternoon as she watched other children going to a party to which she had not been invited. But something happened that afternoon that changed many things. Middle elementary girls will be interested in Martha and her three wishes. Beautiful black and white drawings.

Hans Anderson's *Fairy Tales*. Walck, 1962. 372 p. \$4.50.

This new edition of Anderson's fairy tales contains many of his tales which are not as well known as the old familiar tales which have been loved by generations of children; *Thumbelina*, *Tin Soldier*, *Emperor's New Clothes*, *Tinder Box*, *The Nightingale*, *The Ugly Duckling*, and many others. The illustrations by Ernest Shepard in both black and white and also in color are delightful.

HEILBROWNER, JOAN. *Robert the Rose Horse*. Random, 1962. 64 p. \$1.95.

Robert had to sneeze every time he got near roses; and oh how he sneezed. He had to leave the farm and go to the city, and even there he lost several good jobs, because he sneezed at the wrong times. Then he found a job with the police, and once he sneezed some bank robbers into a tangle. Story and pictures for children about 4 to 7 or 8.

Heroes of Our Time. Dutton, 1962. 181 p. \$3.50.

Brief biographies of fourteen men and women, each of whom has dedicated his life to the betterment of their fellow man. Recommended for junior and senior high school students.

HODGES, CARL. *Baxie Randall and the Blue Raiders*. Bobbs Merrill, 1962. 187 p. \$3.50.

As a scout for the Illinois Blue Raiders, twelve year old Baxie Randall also serves for a prized stallion stolen by the Confederate states from his father. Baxie witnessed the ways in which the war was fought and was at the end rewarded for his services. A Civil War story for eighth graders and up.

HODGES, MARGARET. *Club Against Keats*. Dial, 1962. 64 p. \$2.75.

Middle elementary girls will enjoy this story dealing with a club (five girls like themselves) formed against the new boy in the neighborhood. But, of course, there comes a day when they need him, and the story takes a different turn. Humorous black and white drawings occur at high points throughout. A very pleasant story.

HORN, MADELINE DARROUGH. *The New Home*. Scribner's, 1962. 128 p. \$2.95.

The Barrows family moved from Kentucky to the prairies of Illinois in the pioneer days. This is the story of some of their experiences. Andrew was twelve and so small that his brother Rip called him "Runt." Then there came a time when Andrew did what needed to be done in any emergency, and Rip called him Andrew after that. For reading in about the third grade.

JACKSON, SALLY. *Here We Go*. Reilly & Lee, 1962. unpag. \$2.50.

Beginning readers will enjoy this lively story of three children off on an adventure. They ride a merry-go-round, ferris wheel, they find a cat, buy a fish—all of which is told in the briefest kind of text and with very gay illustrations in both three colored and in black and white pictures. The sturdy reinforced cloth binding should do well.

LAKRITA, ESTHER. *Randy Visits the Doctor*. Broadman, 1962. unpag. \$1.00.

This story describes the details of a child's visit to the doctor as a friendly, understandable procedure. The high points of the experience are well illustrated in the interesting two toned pictures. The type, large and clear; the vocabulary suited to primary readers. It should serve nicely in health and social studies for this group as well as a beginning-to-read story.

LATHAM, JEAN LEE. *Classics in Color*. Bobbs Merrill, 1962. unpag. \$1.95 ea.

Modern versions of old favorites, together with bold full color illustrations are sure to win the approval of today's young readers, ages 6-9.

L'ENGLE, MADELINE. *Wrinkle in Time*. Ariel, 1962. 206 p. \$3.25.

Miss L'Engle's lively imagination fits well with our space minded children of the present generation. The search for a scientist who has disappeared into space proves to be interesting reading. Upper age and junior high school aged children may have less difficulty in understanding a "teseract" than some of us who are more set in our ways. A fast moving and surprising story, especially the ending.

LEVIN, RHODA. *Arthur*. Atheneum, 1962. unpaginated. \$3.95.

Arthur was a bird in a park in New York. He was so busy doing various things that he missed the migration to the South. How he survived, and what it is like to be a bird in New York in the winter make up this story, and it shows children of about 4 to 8 something of a bird's eye view of New York in the winter.

MCCAW, MABLE. *Orange Juice for Terry*. Broadman, 1962. unpaginated. \$1.00.

This preschool and primary book, the story told in rhythmic style, recounts the activity of various people who had a part in the preparation of the orange juice for Terry. Interesting full page illustrations.

PICKARD, BARBARA. *The Lady of the Linden Tree*. Criterion, 1962. 214 p. \$3.50.

Miss Pickard has made up twelve fairy stories, and has done a superb piece of work in making savory of the genuine tang of the old time stories. Story tellers and children at the fairy story age will rejoice in these additions to such tales.

SMYTH, PAT. *Three Jays Lend A Hand*. Duell, Sloan & Pierce, 1962. 149 p. \$2.95.

This is the seventh of the three jay books, all of them horsey and all of them in the British setting. The horse parts are quite realistic, but the plots are much more interesting than believable. At any rate children about 10-14 are entranced. This one revolves about a will, an air plane pilot and the three jays Jimmy, Jacky, and Jane.

WEBB, CHRISTOPHER. *River at Pee*

Dee Jack. Funk & Wagnalls, 1962. 186 p. \$2.95.

When 18-year-old Tom Holton, employed by Yankee Fur Company, meets the old trapper Pee Dee Jack and hears of a river which Pee Dee says leads to the Pacific, Tom and a group of trappers led by Fielding start on a long trip to find the river. What they find and the adventures they encounter make this an exciting book.

Education and Psychology

BABBIDGE, HOMER AND ROSENWEIG. *Federal Interest in Higher Education*. McGraw-Hill, 1962. 212 p. \$5.95.

This is a decidedly superior volume dealing with the Government of the United States, and its relation to institutions of higher learning. It contains a good section which treats the subject historically and then another which is important because it discusses the present problems of church and state relations, federal control, and segregation.

BIGGE, MORRIS L. AND HUNT, MAURICE P. *Psychological Foundations of Education*. Harper, 1962. 530 p. \$7.50.

A quite satisfactory text dealing with the problems of human development and learning. The annotated bibliographies at the end of each chapter are particularly worth noticing.

BOYLAN, JAMES B. *School Teaching As A Career*. Walck, 1962. 100 p. \$3.50.

A helpful source for high school and junior high considering teaching as a career. An objective readable statement.

BREMBECK, COLE S. *The Discovery of Teaching*. Prentice Hall, 1962. 333 p.

Combination text and case book on teaching. The cases illustrate many familiar problems of the teacher. Biographies of books, periodicals, and films add to the utility of this work, for introductory courses in teacher education.

BURRUP, PERCY E. *Modern High*

School Education. Harper. 431 p. \$6.00.

A good text, or supplementary volume for a course in secondary school administration—specifically the principal and the duties of his office. Each chapter has a list of questions and topics for discussion, plus a bibliography.

CORBALLY, JOHN E. *School Finance.* Allyn & Bacon, 1962. 288 p.

A well organized comprehensive text, which can also be a source of substantial help to persons actively involved in school budgets and finance.

DAVIS, JAMES A. *Stipends and Spouses.* Univ. of Chicago, 1962. 293 p. \$5.00.

A carefully done piece of research on the writing and teaching the graduate student and their fiancées in the school of arts and sciences in America.

FOSDICK, RAYMOND B. *Adventure in Giving.* Harper, 1962. 369 p. \$6.50.

This is a history of the General Education Board. The manuscript was started by Mr. and Mrs. Henry F. Pringle, and after Mr. Pringle's death completed by Raymond B. Fosdick. The volume is well written, and it is of tremendous significance for persons interested in the history of education since the beginning of this century.

GREEN, EDWARD. *Learning Process and Programmed Instruction.* Holt, 1962. 228 p. \$4.00.

A new work on a new subject, giving conditional principals and programming techniques. Both the psychologist and the teacher will find stimulating ideas for the practical use for programmed material.

HANSEN, CARL. *Amidon Elementary School.* Prentice Hall, 1962. 252 p. \$5.95.

The story of Amidon School in the District of Columbia is that of a successful demonstration in basic education. The opportunity presented itself in 1960 when an all new 25 room elementary school was opened with all new staff and pupils. This is not the account of a research project, but rather the simple story of how a superintendent translates his ideas about elementary educa-

tion in action. It is an important book for teachers and administrators.

HARDIE, CHARLES D. *Truth and Fallacy in Educational Theory.* Columbia Univ., 1962. 156 p. \$1.75.

The reprint of a work first published in 1942, with an added Preface to the American Edition. This small volume is an educational classic; and it is good to see it in a paperback once more.

HARRISS, REED AND ROBINS, LEWIS. *Our Friends in Spain.* Sloane, 1962. 47 p. \$3.50.

Does just as admirably for Spain what the companion volume does for youngsters; *Learning Conversational French.*

HODGKINSON, HAROLD L. *Education in Social and Cultural Perspectives.* Prentice Hall, 1962. 243 p. \$3.95.

The purpose of this book, as studied in the introduction, is to provide some new ways of looking at schoolhouses, teachers, children, and administrators. The manuscript is well written and also thought provoking. Actually the latter was one of the author's objectives; he wrote with his own point of view hoping that it would present argument.

HUNTER, ELIZABETH. *The Cooperative Teachers at Work.* Columbia Univ., 1962. 103 p. \$1.50.

A small useful volume which is a collection of case studies dealing with situations confronted by practice teachers. It is recommended reading for students, teachers, and their superiors.

KERR, ANTHONY. *Universities of Europe.* Canterbury, 1962. 232 p. \$5.75.

An entertaining and informative volume. Treatments of universities in various countries are necessarily brief but surprisingly comprehensive. A useful volume for students of comparative education.

KLAUSMIER, HERBERT J. AND DRESDEN, KATHERINE. *Teaching in the Elementary School.* Harper, 1962. 622 p. \$5.50.

This is the second edition of an excellent text. The student teacher and the young

teacher just entering a new job will find it helpful. Best of all the book is practical.

LEYBURN, JAMES G. *The Scotch-Irish*. Univ. of North Carolina, 1962. 377 p. \$7.00.

A scholarly well written story of one of the large groups who helped to settle America. As social history the volume merits superior rating.

MESERVE, BRUCE E. AND SOBEL, MAX E. *Mathematics for Secondary School Teachers*. Prentice Hall, 1962. 367 p. \$9.95.

Based on lectures given by the authors to groups of in-service secondary school mathematics teachers, this book "emphasizes the relationship between some of the basic concepts contained in contemporary recommendation for secondary mathematics and their counterparts in the traditional curricula." An invaluable guide to those teachers who wish to apply the modern concept of mathematics to their classroom methods.

MUUSS, ROLF E. *First Aid for Classroom Discipline Problems*. Holt, 1962. 62 p.

Based on a speech given during a workshop of the Preventive Psychiatry program of the State University of Iowa, this booklet is a study of psychological factors as they relate to discipline problems. Since classroom control is a problem with many teachers, this book will prove to be a "first-aid" to many.

NEVINE, ALLAN. *State Universities and Democracy*. Univ. of Ill., 1962. 171 p. \$2.95.

Another of the challenging books in American higher education written by one of America's best known historians. In this slender volume he traces briefly the background and growth of the state universities and in the last chapter, raises the question concerning the present and the future.

RAFFERTY, MAX. *Suffer Little Children*. Devin Adair, 1962. 157 p. \$3.00.

A book that will please some and provoke a few. It is a series of essays presenting a sharp attack on practices in American education during the past quarter of a century. Whether or not one agrees with the author is

of secondary importance, for this volume serves its purpose remarkably well by challenging the reader to think.

RAMBUSCH, NANCY McCORMICK. *Learning How to Learn*. Helicon, 1962. 180 p. \$4.75.

An excellent discussion of the Montessori system, showing one of American's approach and the successful use of it. The foreword by George N. Shuster is brief, though quite worth reading. This book is decidedly worth the time of teachers in elementary grades, and for that matter it can be profitably read by anyone who is interested in improving the level of instruction.

RAYWID, MARY ANNE. *Ax-Grinders*. Macmillan, 1962. 260 p.

This is a useful volume, giving the story of the critics of public education. It is surprisingly complete and well indexed. Our only criticism is that the author might have been more discriminating. Those groups who are striving for improved instruction, and who are critical of progressive education, as such, are not in the same category with those who would attempt to destroy our system of public schools. The book is good and it should be read by teachers, administrators and parents.

REED, HARRIS AND ROBINS, LEWIS. *Our Friends in France*. Sloane, 1962. 47 p. \$3.50.

Advertised as a picture book for learning to speak French, it does an admirable job of being just that. The illustrations are clever and children will love both them and the text.

RELLER, THEODORE L. AND MORPHET, EDGAR L. *Comparative Educational Administration*. Prentice Hall, 1962. 438 p. \$7.95.

A quite significant volume dealing with the organization of school systems in 16 different countries, the United States of America and Canada being two. A chapter is given to each one of the countries and an additional five chapters serve to pull the story together. Recommended.

SARASON, DAVIDSON, BLATT. *The Preparation of Teachers*. Wiley, 1962. 124 p. \$1.95.

A stimulating criticism of existing teacher education programs, and a provocative argument for more scientific study of teacher preparation in relation to the teaching-learning process.

SPEIGEL, LEON. *Poems of Psychoanalytic Thought*. International Univ. Press, 1962. unp. \$2.50.

This is a series of poems by a psychiatrist which were elocuted by Freudian personality theory.

Teaching of Classics. 2nd Ed. Cambridge Univ., 1962. 245 p. \$3.50.

This text issued by the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in secondary schools is the sixth in a series having to do with the teaching of the main subjects in English secondary school curriculum, is a beautifully stated and explicit apology for the study of the classics. Its chapters cover junior and middle school Latin, Greek in early years, literature, classics in the secondary modern school, examinations, aids. One who wishes to gain a true impression of the content, and methodology, and goals in the secondary schools of England could do no better than study this text.

TORRANCE, E. PAUL. *Guiding Creative Talent*. Prentice Hall, 1962. 278 p. \$6.75.

An unusual book in many respects. It should prove to be useful, and in view of the awakened interest in superior pupils and in superior teaching, the volume is certainly recommended.

TRAPP, PHILLIP E. *Readings on the Exceptional Child*. Appleton, 1962. 674 p. \$7.00.

This book brings together 48 readings on research and theory with the following groups: mentally retarded, gifted, blind, deaf, speech handicapped, brain damaged, crippled and emotionally disturbed. Several surveys and reviews of research are included. Adequate sampling of burgeoning research in these areas is difficult. This book presents a valiant effort.

WALTER, NINA WILLIS. *Let Them Write Poetry*. Holt, 1962. 179 p. \$1.95.

Recommended as a source of ideas on

how to increase children's appreciation of poetry through the writing of it. The author shows that she herself is a creative and imaginative teacher.

WESTON, ARTHUR. *The Making of American Physical Education*. Appleton, 1962. 319 p. \$5.00.

A collection of outstanding articles and speeches which have been most effective in shaping the physical education system in America. This is primarily a college text for courses in the history and philosophy of American physical education.

WITKIN, H. A. *Psychological Differentiation*. Wiley, 1962. 418 p. \$7.95.

This book presents a conceptual framework for the nature and development of differentiation of psychological systems. The theory is backed up by a large body of research. The same investigators previously studied perception of the vertical and the present research report is an outgrowth of their earlier work.

VAN DALEN, DEOBOLF. *Understanding Educational Research*. McGraw-Hill, 1962. 432 p. \$6.95.

After presenting certain introductory materials such as observational methods and means of collecting data, the author outlines the patterns of historical, descriptive, and experimental methods of research. These topics are followed by chapters on descriptive and inferential statistics. This is a solid scholarly work which may be used by the research worker as well as the consumer. It is adaptable as a basic textbook in methods of research courses.

Literature

BROWER AND POIRIEF. *In Defense of Reading*. Dutton, 1962. 311 p. \$5.25.

Another of the numerous anthologies of critical essays on literary works and authors. The contents consist of fifteen essays by members of a Harvard course in literary criticism which seek to unite "The traditional approach of literary history and character analysis and the current emphasis on close textual analysis.

DE LORRIS, GUILLAUME AND DE

MEUM, J. *Romance of the Rose*. Dutton, 1962. 472 p. \$6.95.

This translation by the late Professor Harry W. Robbins, Bucknell University, is the first complete English translation of this masterpiece of medieval literature. It is acclaimed by scholars as a brilliant achievement.

PICKARD, JOHN. *John Greenleaf Whittier*. Barnes & Noble, 1961. 120 p. \$1.25.

Two new titles in an excellent series. Significant biographical material is coupled with critical commentary on writings, and up-to-date bibliographicals are added as guides to further reading. There are a few well chosen illustrations, and the format is attractive.

PRIESTLY, J. B. AND DAVIS, O. B. *4 English Biographies*. Harcourt, 1962. 767 p.

An admirable book for the high school library or for class use. Marchette Chute's *Shakespeare of London*, and Laurie Lee's autobiography, *The Edge of Day*, with study questions make up the contents.

WAGENKNECHT, EDWARD. *Nathaniel Hawthorne, Man and Writer*. Oxford. 233 p. \$5.50.

Since its publication a year ago, this book has taken its place among the most valuable studies of Hawthorne. Professor Wagenknecht seeks to answer the question, "What sort of man was he?" He explores the attitudes of his contemporaries, relevant biographical facts, and Hawthorne's own writings, and constructs a vivid and convincing portrait of Hawthorne "Man and Writer."

WAGENKNECHT, EDWARD. *Washington Irving*. Oxford, 1962. 223 p. \$5.50.

Another one of Professor Wagenknecht's admirable studies of writers as men. Changing literary tastes may have lowered the critical estimate of Irving's work, but he emerges from this study as an urbane and civilized man, devoted to good taste and the avoidance of extremes in both manners and in literature.

Reference

HARRIS, SEYMOUR E. *Higher Education: Resources and Finances*. McGraw-Hill, 1962. 713 p. \$9.95.

This book deals with the problem confronting American colleges of providing additional resources to meet the rising tide of students and the demand for higher standards. Parallel with this, of course, is the necessity for procuring more money. The volume is the result of a study made possible by the generous grant from the Ford Foundation.

HOOK, LUCYLE. *The Research Paper*. Prentice-Hall, 1962. 85 p. \$1.95.

A modest pamphlet in gathering the material for the writing of a term paper, including the use of the library, organizing and preparing the manuscript. It is simply designed and will be useful to students and teachers alike.

Private Independent Schools. Bunting and Lyon, 1962. 1190 p.

This excellent evaluation of private independent schools in the United States is a valuable directory for parents and teachers. There are 875 independent schools described, with full-length descriptions for more than 260 of them and short listings for the others.

REMLEIN, MADALINE. *School Law*. 2nd ed. Interstate, 1962. 346 p. \$5.25.

Teachers need enough training in school law to understand their own needs, to know why a certain statute was enacted, its effect and its probable interpretation; and the reasons why a particular court made a certain decision . . ." This book attempts to give the above information.

Music

CARABO-CONE, MADELINE. *The Playground As A Music Teacher*. Harper, 1959. 248 p. \$5.00.

This book describes an ingenious, but somewhat artificial, method by which drill in the rudiments of music can be given by adapting standard children's game patterns so that they are played of a giant size musical staff, or piano keyboard, or with giant notes, rests, etc. Detailed instructions are

included for the equipment and playing procedure for each game.

ELLISON, ALFRED. *Music With Children*. McGraw-Hill, 1959. 204 p. \$5.75.

This book proffers a basic music program for the elementary school. Based on the developmental point of view, the music program suggested emerges from the total framework of modern concepts of children's growth, as well as from the contributions that music as a specific curriculum activity can make to fulfill the total development potential. Intended for classroom teachers, it assumes no technical background in music.

MATHIS, WILLIAM S. *The Pianist and Church Music*. Abingdon, 1962. 109 p. \$1.25.

Chapter titles are self-explanatory: Why the Piano?, Selecting the Pianist, Qualifications of the Pianist, Responsibilities of the Church Pianist, Use of the Pianist. Appendices list, appropriate books and practical music collections. Style often sermonic, but always sensible. If only the content were more often heeded.

WILTROUT, DORTHEA. *Let's Sing and Play*. Children's Press, 1959. 30 p. \$2.50.

Covers the full range of subjects, the things and people that excite children's minds and stimulate them to sing and move. Singable tunes, catchy rhythms, good texts, and directions for group activities with each song make this a useful book in school and at home.

Science and Mathematics

ADLER, IRVING. *Weather In Your Life*. Day, 1959. 126 p. \$3.00.

Directed to junior high school students, this small volume gives a short and elementary treatment of weather elements, forecasting, and climate change.

BEISER, GERMAINE AND ARTHUR. *The Story of Cosmic Rays*. Dutton, 1962. 126 p. \$2.25.

Excellent introductory presentation of cosmic rays at the level of an able junior high student. Well illustrated and accurate. Quite

valuable to elementary teachers ■ ■ ■ source of adequate information on ■ fascinating topic.

FOWLER, W. S. *The Development of Scientific Method*. Pergamon Press, 1962. 116 p. \$1.75.

Excellent and refreshing monograph, possessing clarity of structure with sufficient detail to add meaning. A must for the serious student of the natural sciences.

HARVEY, BERNARD G. *Introduction to Nuclear Physics and Chemistry*. Prentice-Hall. 369 p. \$12.00.

Very readable and carefully illustrated text for those of modest mathematical attainment. Stresses nuclear models, theories, and experimental equipment. Highly recommended for self-study by teachers. A good source book for able youth.

HEMENWAY, HENRY CAULTON. *Physical Electronics*. Wiley, 1962. 396 p. \$8.25.

A good up-to-date text. Excellent balance between theoretical foundation, model building of concepts, and application. Particularly useful to mathematical knowledgeable science teachers. Treats both transistors and vacuum tubes.

HYDE, MARGARET. *Animals in Science*. McGraw-Hill, 1962. 144 p. \$3.25.

An engaging book in the role of animal behavior studies in going information to man. Designed for the junior high school student who knows about and likes animals. Well illustrated with line drawings. Good supplementary science.

KIRK, FRANKLIN AND REMBOI, NICHOLAS R. *Instrumentation*. American Technical Society, 1962. 263 p.

In a sense, instrumentation is applied elementary physics. The high school student with a yen for engineering will find the carefully illustrated treatment both helpful and engaging.

STONE, F. G. A. *Hydrogen Compounds of the Group IV Elements*. Prentice-Hall, 1962. 112 p. \$5.25.

This book describes the preparation and

properties of the hydrogen compounds of silicon, germanium, tin, and lead with emphasis on recent work. Some 350 references are included.

STRAIGHT, GERALD M. *The Young Scientist's Reader*. Hart, 1962. 128 p. \$2.95.

Interesting stories about science and invention for the middle-grade children. Would provide a good base from which to build and refine science concepts.

Geography

Israel in Pictures, Sterling, 1962. 64 p. \$1.00.

A brief picture geography of Israel. Depicts conditions of lands, work, and people.

KENNAMER, LORRIN AND WISHART, PAUL. *Geography*. Steck Co., 1962. 48 p. \$1.75.

Deals briefly with topics related to physical and economic geography. Abundant illustrations.

SOMME, AXEL. *The Geography of Norden*. Wiley, 1962. 363 p. \$10.25.

Written in English by thirteen prominent Scandinavian geographers, this book serves as a textbook on the geography of northern Europe. Style and emphasis vary from chapter to chapter. It is highly informative and illustrated with useful maps and graphs. The American college student and teacher will find this volume of great value as a reference book on Scandinavia.

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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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Editorial . . .

Great Expectations

When Henry Thoreau was told that Margaret Fuller had said, "I accept the universe," his remark was, "Gad, she'd better!" It is plain he was thinking that she had no other option and that her formal acceptance was redundant or even a trifle comic.

Now, more than a century later, there are many persons who would maintain that she did have other options. She could have rejected the universe, lock, stock and barrel, and have spent the rest of her short literary life giving it fits for being what it was. Thus she might have become the first Angry Young Woman, famous for the things she did not accept, distinguished for her holy dread of believing what might not be true. In such character she might well seem today not so much a quaint personality among the New England Transcendentalists as a true prophetess a century ahead of her time.

For the mid-twentieth century mentality is cautious and suspicious. It is hounded by fear of believing what may not be true, of revering what may not be worthy, of exulting in what is not really triumph when better understood. It is a curious circumstance that along with dramatic expansion of knowledge in our time has come also a sort of intellectual retrenchment. The soul's surmise is not invincible. We feel that doubt honors us and is always safe, while a clear-voiced "Aye!" may sound again in our ears, mocking us when our naivete and credulousness have been exposed. With more sure and exciting knowledge than men ever had before, we yet celebrate the shrunken

faith, chronicle the brave, intelligent distrust of what sounds too good to be true.

Such a broad disposition to doubt, itself a depressant upon all braver human enterprise, sloughs down into something worse—a cynical suspicion of all values. In the possession of this demon we suspect there is no investment of self that is not selfish, no heroism that is not simply a conduct of circumstance and necessity, no broadly enjoyed learning that is not shallow learning. In this distempered mood we condemn the law and its servants, public service and public men, and we enjoy suspecting that most ideals in the last boiling down are little more than a nice arrangement of words. From such a mood came sick humor. From such a mood too long indulged might come sick men.

The responsibility for this humor of rejection and self-derogation is widely shared. There is, it may be, some small share for teachers. We have not been habitual doubters, nor have we practiced misanthropic distrust. But breathing the air of our age, not wishing to fall behind any in intellectual sophistication nor in with any who were self-deceived, we have sometimes hedged our moral confidence with “critical realism.” Then has our bidding to faith been weak. Sometimes we are young intellectuals again, making suitable obeisance to the household gods. One of these is skepticism. Veneration of the questioning, suspecting, doubting, critical intelligence was and is one of the first of the academic pieties.

Well, first rate intelligence is critical. But that is not all it is. It is also eagerly receptive of new experience, it is appreciative, even exclamatory, before a wonderful new thing or an old thing in a wonderful new view. The best intelligence exults in beauty, it sorrows before injustice, it rejoices in the good thing thought or done, it hopes everlastingly and its expectations are great.

ARTHUR L. BRADFORD
State University College
Buffalo, New York

New Dimensions for the Social Studies

JACK ALLEN

George Peabody College for Teachers

Social studies is one curriculum area where clarification of meaning seems to be a continuous need. There has been broad consensus for at least a generation that the term social studies refers to that area of the school curriculum which derives its content principally from the various social science disciplines. The social studies, as a consequence, are concerned with human relationships. They, likewise, fit within the scope of what we commonly identify as general education.

The continuing problem of meaning stems less from the foregoing considerations than from questions of curriculum organization. Here a negative comment may be appropriate. The social studies, by definition, imply *no* particular form of curriculum organization. Those critics who tend to equate social studies exclusively with such terms as *fused* or *integrated*, who, as a consequence, challenge the social studies program for its "fuzziness," are ignoring both the form and substance of much that is taught in the schools and colleges. For a great majority of high school students in the United States the social studies program consists of separate courses in American history and world history. American history is the principal social studies course of most eighth graders. Even in the middle grades, large numbers of students study history and geography as separate and distinct offerings. At the same time, social studies courses are provided through other forms of curriculum organization. Some involve materials drawn from two or more of the social sciences, as for example, a senior high school course in Problems of Democracy or a primary grades offering centered around community living. Core curriculum programs broaden the scope even further by combining social studies with such areas as language arts and science.

Recent advances in the social sciences have served to complicate the issues relating to the nature of social studies. Many of the so-called

newer social sciences have been building vast bodies of knowledge and rationalizing their techniques of inquiry. These disciplines now, more than ever before, are demanding what they regard as their rightful place in the social studies program. The pressures pose a threat to the traditional hold of history and, to a lesser degree, of geography on the social studies program in the elementary and secondary school.

Meanwhile, the matter of goals or purposes has also been the subject of considerable re-examination. First, there is the question of knowledge. Hopefully, the dialogue has moved far beyond the issue of facts versus understanding. While we know there continues to be too much teaching of facts for facts' sake, it is not something one would wish to countenance. The question of what facts to select in order to build desirable understandings is quite another matter, particularly as the total range of the social sciences is related to the social studies program. Here there is a heavy measure, not only of uncertainty, but almost of futility. Yet the young citizen must be schooled; and his learning ought to be purposeful.

Then, there are the goals associated with the attitudes or values that we hope to develop in a free people. Here, too, we find an area of continuous re-assessment. Clearly many of the great issues of our times focus on conflicts in values, not only among nations, but among individuals. The values that collectively constitute American culture, as well as those of an interdependent but divided world, lie at the very heart of social studies instruction.

Finally, we arrive at the goals commonly classified as skills. This brings us to the dimensions suggested by this essay and by four articles that follow. Skills instruction has always been a goal of the social studies. It has not, however, been as clearly identifiable a goal in social studies as in such curriculum areas as language arts and mathematics. Even where skills have had considerable emphasis in social studies instruction, they have been carried too often only to the point of the ability to locate information, read maps in a perfunctory manner, or develop some sense of time and chronology. The ability to think about problems reflectively and to view issues critically represent levels of achievement too infrequently realized. These are the kinds of goals that offer promise for new dimensions in the social studies.

The philosopher, Alfred North Whitehead, has reminded us that

“... our rate of progress is such that an individual human being, of ordinary length of life, will be called upon to face novel situations which find no parallel in his past. The fixed person, for the fixed duties, who, in older societies, was such a godsend, in the future, will be a public danger.”

The anthropologist, Margaret Mead, spoke in much the same vein in an address a few years ago before a large gathering of American educators. Speaking to the ancient cliché “You can’t teach somebody something you don’t know,” she commented: “Now that fascinated me, because if we can’t we had better quit right now. If we can’t teach every student we’ve got something we don’t know in some form, we haven’t a hope of educating the next generation, because what they are going to need is what they don’t know.”

A clear implication of both these observations is the primacy of skills in the hierarchy of educational goals. If we cannot predict with any degree of certainty what the next generation of American citizens will need to know in order to handle effectively the problems of their society, then it is imperative that we equip them with tools of inquiry, plus attitudes conducive to investigation and action. It is this type of philosophic assumption that has led to the popularity and widespread interest in such recent education best-sellers as Bruner’s *The Process of Education* and Bloom’s *The Taxology of Educational Objectives*.

The rationale of the papers which follow is that each of the social sciences in its development as a discipline has evolved a methodology, a means of inquiry, that bears direct relationship to the development of skills in social studies. The historian has one way of looking at society, the economist another, and so on. The ways, to be sure, are not mutually exclusive. There are many elements of similarity and areas of interdependence and overlap in the various disciplines. But it is helpful to see society through different kinds of eyes and to learn how competent scholars develop new knowledge and insight. Accordingly, one paper looks at the social studies program of the elementary and secondary school through the eyes of an historian. A second approaches the program by way of political science; a third, sociology and social psychology; a fourth, economics. The area of human geography is a regrettable omission, for it has unique contributions to any adequate program of social studies instruction.

If there is merit to the assumptions upon which these papers are based, then, assuredly, there are implications for programs of teacher education. It is not enough merely to provide prospective social studies teachers with organized bodies of information and affirmative attitudes. A knowledge of process too is essential. But if skills are to be learned they must be practiced. This implies an assumption of instructional responsibilities by the academic community that too often have received little attention below the level of the graduate seminar.

Professor W. Burlie Brown of Tulane University, is one scholar, representative of many, who, in this connection, found dissatisfaction with his own classroom. "I wanted," he wrote, "to begin earlier and advance more rapidly to those aspects of the discipline of history that go beyond the mere acquisition of a store of historical facts." His freshman students, he observed, could learn the facts of history; many indeed already came to college with a goodly store of facts. Their trouble was learning to use the facts. "Analysis, synthesis, and interpretation came very hard for them, even on an elementary level."

What Professor Brown observed with his freshman history students applies equally to other social studies and to social science instruction at the college level. If tomorrow's adult citizen is to be something other than a "fixed person," if the American is to react to his world with a measure of rational inquiry, the process of education must take hold early and proceed systematically. It is not enough to want to be free. Responsible citizens must know how to remain free.

An All Alumni Number

All of the materials published in this issue are by Peabody Alumni. Dr. Jack Allen prepared the first article and suggested the four following.

The Historical Method in the Teaching of History

DONALD SCHNEIDER

**Graduate Student, George Peabody College
For Teachers**

History is the mother of the social sciences. As such it has developed its methodology through trial and error over centuries of experience. This struggle to develop the historical method and its importance as an approach to learning are often overlooked. In neglecting the historian's methodology as one approach, we are turning our backs upon what may be the discipline's most important contribution to our century. The use of the historical method in the classroom can provide a channel through which creative and critical thinking can take place even in early years of formal education. However, to do this the teacher must have an operational definition of history and a clear picture of the methodology.

The task of defining history is not an easy one. A number of historians have attempted to define it but there seems to be little consensus as to which interpretation is best. The word history does not have a precise definition. The meaning depends upon the context in which it is used. It can mean everything that ever happened, or a study of the past, or a written account of the past. History, according to Henry Johnson, "in its broadest sense, is everything that ever happened."¹ He narrows this, however, when he points out that it usually means the story of man. For Wesley and Wronski, history, also in a broad sense, can be defined as "a record of things said and done."² They too qualify their definition by noting that it usually is limited to man and his recorded activities for approximately the last five thousand years.

¹ Henry Johnson, *The Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools* (revised, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940), p. 1.

² Edgar B. Wesley and Stanley P. Wronski, *Teaching Social Studies in High Schools* (fourth edition; Boston: D.C. Heath Company, 1958), p. 435.

Arthur M. Schlesinger describes history as mankind's memory.³ To Carl L. Becker, history is the "memory of things said and done."⁴

These last two definitions are the most useful for teachers. Becker thought there was an important difference between a record of the past and a memory of the past. To avoid getting bogged down in a discussion of what is real, which would be essentially the old argument between nominalists and realists, we can accept Becker's view that if history is to have any meaning to men, it has to be not only recorded but also remembered. A dusty book in the corner of an attic, no matter how perceptive and close to reality the author's insights are, has no meaning except to the author. It is not until it is read, remembered, and placed into the context of many other ideas by succeeding generations that it gains meaning. The historian who wrote the book had a useful memory of the past but if his account is not read, the memories, and ideas soon become lost. History is the memory of the past on the part of each individual in his society. History for an American citizen involves a different set of memories than does history for a Soviet citizen. As a result, history helps to build a different climate of opinion or framework of ideas, about the world—its past, present, and future. In turn, this climate of opinion helps to determine the behavior of the individual and the society.

As the volume of communication and knowledge expands, it becomes less and less possible to record all of the material in the encyclopedic work envisaged by Francis Bacon. Increasingly it is becoming more important to know how to find information, how to verify it, and how to utilize it by incorporating it into a larger framework of ideas that are used almost daily. What is needed, then, is an approach that can point the way to the organization and method of our work and thought. Indeed, thirty years ago Becker used history to mean "a method of approach rather than . . . a special field of study."⁵

Teachers cannot hope to continue teaching everything in social studies as is presently done, for example, in the world history course.

³ Arthur M. Schlesinger, "History: Mistress and Handmaid," *Essays on Research in the Social Sciences* (Washington: Brookings Institute, 1931), p. 153.

⁴ Carl L. Becker, *Everyman His Own Historian* (New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1935), p. 235.

⁵ Carl L. Becker, *The Heavenly City of the Eighteenth-Century Philosophers* (New Haven: Yale Paperbound, 1959), p. 18. (Originally published by Yale University Press, 1932).

One cannot start with stone age man or the Greeks and expect students to learn about the total culture of man in each age down to the present. "Postholing" has been suggested as an alternative; that is, teachers select areas for concentrated study, and loosely tie these areas together with the necessary framework for continuity.⁶ Another suggestion is to limit the world history course to an emphasis on modern civilization.⁷ Both of these alternatives can provide students with a more meaningful historical prospective than does the standard survey course. But students of all levels of maturity need to be provided with a way of writing their own histories of the world. In an age dangerously full of propaganda, distortions and "brainwashing," it is essential that our youth be provided with an approach, a method, a way of thinking that will enable them to separate the false from the true by weeding out halftruths, unrelated truths, and the like.

The method of the historian can help to provide such an approach. Moreover, this approach is not limited to social studies application; it has universal applicability.⁸ The engineer who is called upon to publish a paper on his project, the scientist who traces the history of work in his speciality, the trade union officer who is called upon to write a history of his local for publication in a national journal all use, to a greater or lesser extent, the historical method. What is this method? There are five major steps: (1) identification of the subject; (2) acquisition of facts and ideas; (3) historical criticism; (4) synthesis; (5) presentation.

The historical method has been described by many historians, other social scientists, and educators. Some studies are detailed and filled with excellent examples, such as *The Modern Researchers* by Barzun and Graff. Others offer a more concise description as does Wilson Gee in *Social Science Research Methods*.¹⁰ For the social studies teacher

⁶ Charles Keller, "Needed: Revolution in the Social Studies," *Saturday Review*, XLIV (September 17, 1961), pp. 60-62; and Joseph B. Strayer in a paper before the National Council for the Social Studies, Chicago, November, 1961.

⁷ Strayer, *Ibid.*

⁸ For a most lucid discussion of this view see Carl L. Becker, *Everyman His Own Historian*, *op. cit.*, pp. 233-256; also Jacques Barzun and Henry F. Graff, *The Modern Researcher* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1957), p. 17.

¹⁰ Wilson Gee, "The Historical Method," in *Social Science Research Methods* (New York: Appleton, Century, Crofts, Inc., 1950), pp. 289-299. See also, Neil Sutherland:

a brief examination will suffice.

First, the most important step for a researcher is to identify his subject. The subject may be a specific question such as, "In what state was Andrew Jackson born?" or the subject may be narrowed after some preliminary study. For example, the idea, "America has undergone a social and economic revolution in the past thirty years," may be narrowed to "The New Deal was part of the evolution of the American system." The important thing is the historian has an idea or thesis which he is seeking to test, or he has a question he is seeking to answer. In other words, the historian asks himself, "What am I looking for, what am I trying to establish?" Without a subject there is no organization, no systematic approach, and little or no reward in the form of new ideas and understandings for the expended effort.

The second step of the method is finding and using materials, or as it is sometimes called, the bibliographic process. The historian, in seeking to answer his question or validate his thesis, searches for facts and ideas that may help him. This is an important step that requires knowledge gained from previous experience or the assistance of other specialists. However, it should not be overemphasized to the neglect of the other steps. The historian is a writer as well as a researcher.

Historians obtain their facts and ideas from various sources. They are first categorized as records or remains and then as primary or secondary sources. Records are usually a conscious attempt to convey information through the use of oral, written and pictorial means—memoirs, diaries, chronicles, paintings, photographs, and the like. Remains are "accidental" sources, and include tools, buildings, human remains, handwork, and the like.

Distinctions between primary and secondary sources vary with use. A newspaper report of an eyewitness account is a secondary source in relation to the event witnessed, but the report itself is a primary source for evaluating newspaper coverage and reporting for a particular historical period. Diaries are primary sources for the ideas of the diarists, but secondary accounts of the events if the diarist recorded impressions are derived from others. A clear illustration of the difference between sources can be found by comparing a secondary text-

"Structure in the History Curriculum." *Social Education*, XXVI (March, 1962), pp. 133-136, 140.

book account on American foreign policy in the period 1900-1914 with the primary source of United States Department of State documents for the same period.

The importance of knowing the value of various sources is obvious. If the researcher finds that two independent primary sources disagree with a secondary account, he discards the secondary account. It matters little in the quest for a truthful reconstruction that all secondary accounts agree or that they enjoy immense prestige, for if they have not presented the story as close to reality as it can be presented, they are discounted and a new reconstruction is made to fill the void. Knowledge of source differences and importance is only part of the bibliographic process. The historian needs to know where to find the sources and how to gather information from them for future use. Card catalogues, bibliographic and "standard" reference works, microfilms and unpublished papers are just a few of the important kinds of sources of information used by historians. For students at a less sophisticated level of research, reference to textbooks, encyclopedias, biographies, and interviews with teachers and "authorities" in the community are very much a part of this process. The knowledge of where to look involves a skill that is developed over years of training, beginning in the earliest grades.

Once the source is at hand, the historian must in some way, preserve the ideas and facts he finds. This, of course, leads to the image of the scholar buried amidst sheaths of old documents busily taking notes. Note-taking is an important skill and often difficult for a beginner. Whatever method is employed, it should be consistent, workable, and systematic. Taking notes is not the only way of gathering information, however. Photographs, drawings, charts, graphs, and maps can be utilized to preserve information for later use.

After obtaining information, the next step is to subject it to historical criticism. This is a critical step. Through historical criticism the historian lays the foundation for the reconstruction of a series of events. Often this step is thought of as one of verification—proving or disproving that the source is what it is purported to be. Quite often, however, criticism includes finding the meaning and significance of the source. Thus, historians have generally divided historical criticism into two categories, external and internal.

External criticism involves the authenticity of the source. Where and when it originated and who its author was, are questions that need to be answered. The historian's task is to determine whether the source is what it appears to be, or what it is represented to be. For example, is a particular eyewitness account of the Boston "massacre" reliable? Who was the witness? Was he present at the time of the incident and did he have a good vantage point? Did he record his impressions immediately or did he wait until the incident became a major issue?

Internal criticism is a more complex process, usually requiring extensive knowledge of the particular historical period under consideration, including the nature of its institutions, customs, ideas, and personalities. In this step the historian is searching for the meaning and significance of the source. He asks himself the following kinds of questions. Does this essay have a straight-forward meaning or is it satirical? Is the author trying to deceive the reader for some particular reason? Is he accurate, consistent, and reasonably objective? Why does the author fail to include certain information that he previously demonstrated he knew? Answers to these questions often cannot be obtained by the layman. Historians, at times, take years attempting to resolve such problems.

Having verified his facts and ideas and found their meaning and significance as far as possible, the historian is ready to begin the more creative part of his enterprise. He selects, organizes, and interprets the facts and ideas he has uncovered, reconstructing them into their proper relationships. This is the synthesis, and is the least "scientific" of the steps discussed so far. Different historians may very well uncover or use the same facts on a particular subject, but rarely do they synthesize these facts in the same way. For example, answers to the question, "What caused the Civil War?" vary widely. Even when several authors agree generally on an "answer," their interpretations of the factors involved differ.

Today, increasing emphasis is being placed on this step. Facts do not "speak" for themselves. Out of his wealth of notes the historian plans for his final task, the presentation of a synthesis. He endeavors, much like a good journalist, to answer the questions, "Who?" "When?" "Where?" "What?" and if the evidence permits "How?" and "Why?".

There is a danger here, though, because some historians attempt to build the facts into a system for which there is a great deal of contradictory evidence. Facts need generalizations to make them meaningful, but generalizations should not be so broad that they destroy reality. A critical reader is aware of the fact that historians' interpretations can alter a society's memory of the past and perhaps have profound effects on society's view of itself and on its plans for the future.

The last step the historian takes is that of presentation. This almost always means the writing down of the synthesis. It is from this step, which is so linked to the step of synthesis, that the question of whether the historian's work is really a science or an art is raised. Undoubtedly it has aspects of both. No matter how carefully or scientifically a historian has prepared for his presentation, his work may very well go unnoticed or misunderstood if it is not concise, clear, interesting and imaginative in its organization, examples, and language. The art of good writing cannot be taken up here, but it should be mentioned that the trend in historical writing is away from complex, long sentences, filled with distracting clauses and meaningless jargon. The historian should not bury his ideas with words; he should make the ideas memorable through the use of words. Our language is a tool, not a weapon or instrument of mental punishment.

Having discussed the need to develop the historian's method in the schools as a major objective, and having outlined the steps of the historical method itself, it remains to be shown that this method can be used effectively at the various educational levels. It should be noted that the following examples have as a major goal the fostering of the historian's way of thinking. In some instances the subject matter learned as a result of the activity may not appear to justify time and effort expended by both students and teachers. However, the primary goal does warrant the time and effort and, in addition, the subject matter learned by the students will be more meaningful.

The first illustration shows how students in the middle elementary grades (4-6) can begin to use the historical method. A question may be raised in class about news reports which indicate that some people in India are waiting for the end of the world. "Do these people really believe this?" The teacher could quickly explain that these beliefs are real, but are based on religious ideas which are different from their

own, and let it go at that. However, the teacher could use this topic as a “subject” of historical study with gratifying results. Students at this age are generally interested in foreign peoples with different cultures. One group of students could be guided into library research to gain information about these people and their culture from encyclopedias, secondary historical accounts, filmstrips, pictures, and the like. Another group could be charged with the task of following the current news items about India in newspapers and on radio and television. If the teacher is fortunate enough to have a student whose relatives or friends had visited India or Southeast Asia (and this kind of thing happens more often than teachers realize), there may be an opportunity to get some firsthand or primary source information. A teacher on the staff who has specialized in an area such as this could provide students with ideas not otherwise available. In addition, students could write to the United Nations and embassies for further information.

So far this looks like a conventional unit of study, but the students have used the first two steps of the historical method. The stage is now set for them to follow through with the other steps in the method. Inevitably there will be some contradictions in facts and ideas from the varying sources. An alert teacher will capitalize on these to begin the important step of criticism that necessitates source evaluation and verification. Furthermore, the important synthesis of facts and ideas can be initiated. Students will learn that a single eyewitness description of one or even a few towns in India does not mean that all of India conforms to that description. Students will learn that specific information supplied by primary sources is the basis for more generalized accounts as found in encyclopedias and textbooks. They begin to gain an awareness of what must go into the writing of a historical account. At this state the students may not formally present their synthesis in writing, but they will be presenting it in class discussions.

Although this is only one illustration of how students can be encouraged to use the historical method, many of the social studies units at the elementary school level, as at all levels, can be geared to developing this approach to thinking. A study of the community, the home, or the family, can be aimed at the development of the historical method. A controversy over the feasibility of building a community swimming

pool, over whether heavy industry should be allowed to enter the community or whether the community should raise taxes to have a paid fire-fighting force, can be utilized in the elementary school grades. It should be pointed out here that the traditional curriculum plans which center on the home, family, and community in the early grades may rest upon assumptions about abilities and interests that underestimate the students. Recent literature and studies have indicated a wide range of student interest in such things as the past, other societies and even "cold war" problems.¹¹ For example, the teacher has a golden opportunity to help students develop the historian's approach if he capitalizes on the interest children have in cowboys, Indians and the American West. With the great number of television shows devoted to this area the teacher could have students compare the shows with other sources to verify the authenticity of facts, ideas, and images of the various characters presented.

Nevertheless, in far too many instances it is said that this kind of work demands skills and a maturity children do not possess.¹² Certainly the skills have to be developed slowly in accord with ability, interests and maturation level—but development can and should begin in the elementary school. The sooner students become familiar with the historical method the sooner the historian's approach to his work will come naturally to the student when he is confronted with a historical problem.

Moving to the junior high school level, by which time students can begin to handle more complex ideas, the following example illustrates how the historical method can be used. While working on a unit in communications, a question is raised about the biases and unfairness of the press on certain issues. The class, to test the validity of the charge, selects several areas for special study. The areas might include

¹¹ Jack Allen, "Social Studies for America's Children," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XL (April, 1959), pp. 277-280; W. Linwood Chase, "American History in the Middle Grades," William H. Cartwright and Richard L. Watson (editors) *Interpreting and Teaching American History* (Thirty-first Yearbook, Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1961), pp. 329-343; Alexander Frasier, "Lifting our sights in Primary Social Studies," *Social Education*, XXIII (November, 1959), pp. 337-340; and J. D. McAulay "Social Studies Interests of the Primary Grade Child," *Social Education*, XXVI (April, 1962), pp. 199-201.

¹² The use of the historical method even by primary grade students is not a new idea. See Henry Johnson's chapter "School History and the Historical Method," *op. cit.* pp. 297-322; and the same chapter in his 1915 edition, (New York; The Macmillan Company), pp. 350-388.

labor-management disputes, community services versus tax increases, civil rights issues, and political party coverage at election times. In this kind of study the sources are limited, but there is heavy emphasis on historical criticism which would include content analysis.

Context analysis requires abilities and skills that some students may not have at this level, but certainly a slower student can ascertain the quantity of coverage on various sides of an issue while the more advanced students can actually become involved in qualitative analysis, at least to a limited degree. All of this can be done without ever becoming entangled in a study of which party platform is best, or whether labor is right and management wrong. The question here is the quantity and nature of the press coverage on these issues.

At the high school level the student is ready to try his hand at more individualized activities. In the world history course students can read and contrast biographies of historical figures with textbook accounts, or even compare two or more biographies on the same figure or read historical novels of particular periods, such as the French Revolution, with the objective of evaluating the validity of the historic picture presented by the authors. Depending upon the grade level of the course, students can read several accounts dealing with the "causes" of Rome's decline, or England's dominance, or Germany's militarism and subject the sources to criticism in an attempt to evaluate the author's thesis.

In the high school United States history course, students may find problems like the following interesting but perhaps also dissatisfying in that their answers are illusive:

Who fired the first shot at the Battle of Lexington?
In what state was Andrew Jackson born?
Is the story of Plymouth Rock fact or fiction?
Did Betsy Ross make the first American flag?
How many debtors actually settled in Georgia?
What happened at the Boston Massacre?
Who were the Puritans?¹³

It would seem that the question of Jackson's birthplace would be an

¹³ The author has used these in an eleventh grade class with much success and is indebted to Helen McCracken Carpenter, Professor of History, Trenton State College, Trenton, New Jersey, for most of the ideas.

easy one to answer, but the student will encounter conflicting claims that can be traced to contradictory statements by Jackson and his mother; boundary lines that evidently were not clear at the time; and so on. A study of the Battle of Lexington will reveal conflicting eyewitness accounts that necessitate considerable internal as well as external criticism. The best that can be hoped for is a probable answer. Problems like these involve the student in every aspect of the historical method. He gains valuable experience in searching for sources, evaluating them, verifying facts, reconstructing a past event, and presenting his findings and ideas of what really took place. Students can not come away from such a study believing that the text or printed work is necessarily the truth.

Few students will be content with finding that there may be no one correct answer, but the problems faced in their lives may not have just one possible answer either. They must learn to explore many avenues of choice efficiently and objectively, and to make rational judgments. When the use of the historical method becomes a major objective of the social studies curriculum at all levels, it will provide a means of developing the students' ability to think creatively and critically and arm them with a way of approaching academic as well as everyday tasks.

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Economic Methodology and the Social Studies Program

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Economics, in recent years, has entered the curriculum of the public schools in a number of ways. In some systems separate courses in economics have appeared in the senior high school. Problems of democracy and other more general social studies courses often include sections on contemporary economic problems. History courses throughout the school program tend to give more attention to economic trends and development. Many have debated concerning how much economics should be taught in the elementary and secondary schools or in what types of courses. The objective of this article will be to suggest some approaches to the teaching of economics, whether in separate courses or more broadly conceived social studies courses.

Specifically, one of the primary aims of economic instruction should be to bring about in students a way of thinking toward economic questions which parallels, insofar as possible, that of the economist. If this aim is accepted as useful, the question arises—to what extent can the methodology of the economist be introduced at any meaningful level to the elementary and secondary school student?

Methodology in any social science might well be divided into two areas, the general approaches and specific techniques of research which tend to serve as examples of the general approach. The scientific method, broadly defined, is the general method which is common to all social sciences by definition.

The symbols by which social scientists express distinctions are more often the symbols of language. Certainly a precise vocabulary is absolutely necessary to the scientific study of economic behavior. The considerable present interest in mathematical and statistical measurement in economics is in part a result of a desire for a quantitatively more precise set of symbols than language can provide. The scientific use of language in economics as in other social sciences is in the main

a process of borrowing from popular terminology and narrowing or adapting these terms for a more exacting use. For example, the economists have taken the word "investment" and given it a precise meaning which is similar to the popular definition and yet not the same. In general use investment means the using of money or capital to secure profitable returns. In economics investment refers only to that spending which adds to the stock of capital goods.

The young student must be taught to speak in precise terms. If he is to use such terms as "socialism" or "capitalism," he should first be able to define clearly what he means by such terms, or otherwise their use will only lead to confusion in economic thinking and description.

The classroom teacher may use a variety of techniques to stimulate the use of precise language by students. For example, in a senior high course in economics traditional vocabulary study might be in order. Tests which call for definitions of such terms as "inflation," "deflation," "supply," "demand," etc. could stimulate such learning. For the student in the middle grades or junior high school, take an example of a social studies course studying the nations of Africa. Part of such a study would most likely note that these are underdeveloped countries. The student might be asked to look in the school library or other appropriate places and discover as many characteristics as possible of an underdeveloped country. The result might be that rather than vaguely thinking of such countries as "poor" students could describe them as non-industrial, lacking in education, and having low standards of living.

Precise language is of course not an end in itself. Its value to the economist is as a necessary tool for carrying on scientific research. It is the scientific method itself which must be applied in order to further our knowledge of economic behavior. The steps in the scientific method may be summarized briefly as follows:

1. The working hypothesis—it is in its elementary form the definition of the problem of study which makes clear what data is necessary to carry out the study. It may suggest a tentative conclusion or theory or only set forth relationships to be studied. The basic problem in using a hypothesis is that the

researcher will see it only as a point of view to be proved and thus will ignore evidence to the contrary. The result is to prejudice the ultimate results and become unscientific. The problem of remaining objective requires further that the student carefully distinguish what is scientific knowledge and what is value judgment. Economics, which grew out of moral and ethical studies, often tends to include value judgments at the subconscious level. Economists can scientifically explain the existence of unemployment and how it may be reduced. While they generally assume unemployment is a bad thing and although they may study because of a concern over its existence, this assumption and concern are in the realm of value judgments, not science.

2. The gathering of data—it is upon the accuracy and objectivity with which this step is pursued that the ultimate reliability of any generalizations rest.
3. The organization and evaluation of data gathered. The effort at this stage is to demonstrate whatever patterns or uniformities exist.
4. Generalization—this is the scientific theory or “law.” The theory is in essence a brief statement of these patterns stated in such form as to apply to similar situations if all conditions remain equal.

Theory in economics is often expressed in the form of economic models. The student is continually exposed to economic models which are efforts to simplify complex patterns of behavior into meaningful simplifications. The ultimate value of economic theories or models is, as elsewhere, their ability to describe accurately and predict behavior. To the extent that they deviate, limitations must be noted or perhaps a more sophisticated theory is needed. The idea of good in theory poor in practice is nonsense. Scientific theory is as good as its predictive or descriptive ability.

The student should be aware of logical fallacies which may violate scientific analysis. In economics two of the most common are the post hoc fallacy and the fallacy of composition. The former is the assumption that because two occurrences have a sequential relationship, that one is the cause of the other. For example, unions demand

higher wages, and wages go up; therefore, unions caused wages to go up. The fallacy of composition is the assumption that what is true of the part is necessarily true of the whole or vice versa. The case of the wheat farmer is illustrative. If one wheat farmer raises his production this year, he will make more money as he alone cannot affect price. If all wheat farmers raise production, the result will be a sharp drop in price and less income for all.

The term paper offers an excellent means to give students an awareness of the nature of scientific process. Here he can define a subject for study, collect, and evaluate evidence and attempt to reach meaningful conclusions. If the topic involves current economic questions on which he has opinions he will have to deal with the problem of making an objective presentation.

Panel discussions of economic problems offer a means for presenting diverse points of view and can be quite valuable if the student is required to supply objective material in support of his arguments and must deal with the arguments of fellow students. This type of exercise is particularly valuable in distinguishing fact and opinion.

Scientific inquiry is generally divided into deductive and inductive processes. Traditionally, economists have been more inclined toward deductive analysis than other social scientists. To a considerable extent they have concerned themselves with abstracting general systems of economic behavior and in testing the accuracy and usefulness of such systems in the "real" economic world. Sociologists and political scientists have been more concerned with empirical studies which explain human behavior in limited areas.

One of the most useful techniques economists have employed has been the idea of equilibrium systems. In these systems a number of variables are chosen and all possible identities relating to these variables are formulated. These identities are based on postulates concerning the behavior of the variables in the system. Such systems are generally referred to as "models."

If an economic model is to be valuable for purposes of analysis or prediction we must be able to study its variables. Unless the model is simplified the variables become so great as to defy such study. Boulding suggests three types of skills developed by economists to deal with this problem. The first is described as the "method of plausi-

ble topology”—that is the general form of the behavior functions of models. In many cases topological assumptions can be derived from purely logical arguments. The law of diminishing returns furnishes an example. This general assumption concerning production or transformation functions can be demonstrated to be true from the *reductio ad absurdum* argument that if it were not true we could grow all the world's food in a flowerpot. The model in this case then is based on a priori reasoning which we associate with the deductive method. Other cases of plausible topology can be noted which demonstrate the deductive process. As a general approximation Keynes' consumption function (relates consumption to income) can be established without empirical research.

Boulding notes two other specific methods of simplification of models. One is the method of partial equilibrium, generally associated with Alfred Marshall, and the other is the method of aggregation, associated with John Maynard Keynes. Partial equilibrium can be explained by using the “law” of supply and demand. In a complete model we realize that quantity demanded or supplied depends on a number of variables other than price, such as income, distribution, the price of substitutes, cost of production, etc. Nevertheless, it is of considerable value to assume all other variables constant (“all other things being equal”) except price and quantity and show intersecting demand and supply curves determining price. Similarly we can hold other variables constant and study other partial equilibrium systems within the general model.

The aggregative method of simplification consists of adding and combining large numbers of variables and assuming the resultant whole as a single variable. The consumption function of Keynes again serves as an illustration. It states that aggregate consumption is a function of aggregate income. When combined with identity $C + I = Y$ and assumptions concerned aggregative investment we have a system which enables us to understand such aggregative phenomena as unemployment, inflation, and deflation. The consumption function, it should be noted, ignores or combines all the possible variables which might explain individual consumption and looks at the sum of all consumption as a whole.¹

¹ Kenneth E. Boulding, *The Skills of the Economist*, (Cleveland, Howard Allen, Inc., 1958), pp. 12-27.

Economic model building is most often not an empirical or inductive process. It requires "a sensitivity to the relative importance of different factors and a critical, almost an artistic, faculty in the selection of behavior equations which are reasonable, tentative hypotheses in explaining the behavior of actual economics."² It is highly unlikely that such skills in economic methodology can become part of the beginning student's way of thinking. The best that can be achieved is an understanding of the models themselves until the time that the student reaches a high level of economic competence.

While the beginning student cannot be a model builder in the sense discussed, he can profit from projects which demonstrate their usefulness or effectiveness. Using the consumption function again, a class could get information from their parents concerning income, the percentage that went into consumption and the reason why the remainder was not spent. The various explanations could be demonstrated, and then by combining all consumption in various income groups, it could be demonstrated that the propensity to consume varies inversely to the size of income when we speak in the aggregative sense.

The inductive method of economic research is generally associated with the American institutionalist school. It began as an attack on the economic models of the laissez-faire tradition. The basic criticism was that the economic models of that time had become highly unrealistic in explaining the here-and-now economic system. Institutionalists complained that many of these models had never been subjected to empirical verification and that new models might result from empirical studies of raw economic data. For example, Mitchell and others have felt that the best theories of business cycles are those that emerge from a study of the statistics available on business cycles. In any event institutionalists have been loath to accept deductive models unless and until they could be verified.³

Elementary social studies students could begin the process of collecting data and organizing it into general economic behavior patterns. Assume the topic for study is the determination of prices in a free market. Set up a classroom store and give each student a certain

² *Ibid.*, p. 17.

³ For further discussion see Morris A. Copeland, *Fact and Theory in Economics*, (Ithaca, Cornell University Press, 1958).

amount of script. Allow them to bid for the goods available. A storekeeper will be appointed who will sell each item at the highest price he can get. After the buying and selling has ended, students will attempt to gather evidence as to why different items sold at different prices. The result would be a very simple conclusion of the effect of supply and demand.

The institutional approach has been associated with or given impetus to several particular methods of economic analysis. One of these is the survey method. It has been widely used in recent years as a means of collecting basic statistical information which is useful for economic research as well as assessing the immediate economic climate. The Surveys of Consumer Finances conducted for the Federal Reserve System is one example of the method. The group best known for its use of the survey method for purposes of basic economic research is the Michigan University Survey Research Center, which carries out the surveys for the Federal Reserve.⁴

Particularly the Survey Research Center has been concerned with the consumer sector of the economy. Patterns of consumer behavior, which have been discerned from surveys, have been used in business cycle analysis. One general conclusion which has been reached is that to a large extent savings is not simply a function of income or determined by habitual decisions.⁵ In other words, this research suggests that the Keynesian system, which assumes savings to be dependent variable, is in need of modification.

The survey method is based on sampling by means of questionnaires and interviews. Thus the survey method is inseparable from statistical analysis. The statistical method is concerned with "inferring the characteristics of a population from the characteristics of a sample which is in some sense random." This includes "planning patterns of observation as well as the mathematical logic of inductive inference."⁶ In general, the value of statistics is that they carry information past the point where perfect or complete count operate.

For children of high school age a survey questionnaire could be made concerning allowances for teenagers in the school. The first

⁴ For more complete information see George Katona et al, *Contributions of Survey Methods to Economics*, (New York, Columbia University Press, 1954.)

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

⁶ Copeland, *op. cit.*, p. 68.

question would involve deciding what information the class wanted. Suppose the survey was designed to find out what factors influence the amount of an allowance. Is it a function of family income? Is it related to what friends are receiving? Is it related to parents' attitudes toward how much the child needs or should spend? Questions must be asked to get data in these areas. A second problem would be picking a characteristic sample. Criteria such as age groups and sex should be proportionate to the total school population. Having collected the data, students could reach conclusions by checking certain assumptions with the results.

Such a project might offer a particular challenge to the very small percentage of students with considerable background and talent in mathematics. They could be asked to study in the area of statistics and apply specific statistical concepts to the selection of a sample and later to interpreting the results.

In elementary and junior high courses a simple introduction to surveys would be appropriate. For example, students could go to various supermarkets or groceries in the vicinity and note the various brands of particular items and the prices charged. This exercise could effectively serve as a means of illustrating administered pricing.

Another of the methods of economic study which has been emphasized by institutionalists is the historical approach. This approach began with the work of German scholars, such as Weber and Sombart, in the late nineteenth century. The historical approach emphasizes that economic systems must be understood in terms of the primary cultural patterns of society. People behave in economic matters as they do because of the structure of their society and the values that dominate it. For economics to be truly scientific it should properly study the various cultural patterns of a period and relate them to economic patterns. Historical method rejects universal economic laws and restricts generalization in economic description largely to a given time and place.

We can illustrate the type of question the economist using the historical method asks with Max Weber's often quoted inquiry as to why the Industrial Revolution developed first in England rather than in China, which had an older civilization and rich resources?⁷ Weber

⁷ George Soule, *Ideas of the Great Economists*, (New York, York, Mentor Books, 1955), p. 134.

found his answer in cultural forces operative in England at the time of the Industrial Revolution.

To appreciate the historical method, the student must have some understanding of the culture concept. In high school courses in broad social studies areas a unit which deals with anthropology and the culture concept would be valuable. The historical approach would be an appropriate means of introducing economic institutions in history courses where teachers were qualified. The basic aim would be to show the relation of economic institutions to other institutions in various areas and periods of history.

The social studies program in grades 4-8 emphasizes learning about various parts of the world and the development of some elementary concepts of international relations. These units should be concerned with cultural studies of different nations and regions, past and present. Even the very young child can begin to ask himself why other societies have different economic institutions from our own. In separate courses in economics, the introduction of basic economic concepts in the historical context of their inception may lead to greater understanding. This approach also takes advantage of the greater emphasis on history in the social studies curriculum.

This discussion has centered on general deductive and inductive approaches to economic research with some examples of particular techniques applied by economists who use both approaches. It is in no sense a complete summary of economic methodology. Similarly, the examples of classroom practices related to economic methodology are only suggestive samples for different grade levels and curriculum offerings. If this approach to the teaching of economics (as well as other social sciences) should become a trend in the teaching of social studies, the preparation of teachers in social science areas must include instruction in the methodology of the discipline. In addition, only teachers with a particularly strong background in their subject matter area should use this approach.

Utilizing the Methods of the Political Scientist in the Social Studies Classroom

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Civic competence has been an explicit goal of American education since 1918.¹ To achieve this aim in a dynamic, pluralistic society is difficult. This means that American education must do more than transmit the values of a treasured heritage. The best possible tools must be placed in the hands of the citizen of tomorrow. The instruments used by the political scientist in the study of government are useful in dealing with issues and arriving at feasible decisions. Can the methods of political science be translated into activities which will equip the student with the techniques and skills necessary for making wise decisions? The methods of political science do lend themselves to the general education curriculum. In fact, they are already being used. However, the isolated instances of their use in the curriculum indicate that the skills and approach of the political scientist are not being developed as a primary objective. There are three major reasons for this: the lack of communication between the political scientist and the teacher;² the existence of intra-disciplinary conflicts; and the apparent absence of any widespread understanding of the methods of the political scientist.

Three current controversies within the discipline influence the methodology.³ The first of these considers whether or not the student is to

¹ Mr. Robert E. Cleary, Assistant Professor of Political Science, George Peabody College for Teachers, has suggested readings, assisted with the development of the methods of the political scientists, and read that portion of the paper which deals with methodology.

² At the 1961 National Council For the Social Studies annual meeting, the executive secretary of the American Political Science Association distributed questionnaires as part of an effort to determine what place political science has in the social studies curriculum. Political science section, November, 1961.

³ For an excellent account of political science as a discipline, see Charles Hyneman, *The Study of Politics: The Present State of American Political Science* (Urbana: University of Indiana Press, 1959), *passim*.

become involved in how public policy is made and translated into action. This question may be open in political science. In the social studies, there is little question that the process of making and developing policy is a legitimate area of study. Schools are concerned with developing citizens willing to make decisions—responsible ones.⁴ The choice is not one of wise versus unwise commitments. The only choice is that of giving a methodology which increases the likelihood of the better decision.

The most critical controversy is concerned with the question of values, if we may judge by articles appearing in *The American Political Science Review* during recent years.⁵ One school would search for and teach values, particularly values that can be found in the classics. The other view, that of the “political behaviorists,” would create a science of politics outside the pale of value judgments. The extremes of both groups are untenable—a majority of the political scientists tends to be more moderate.⁶ Not only is the ability of anyone to become so objective that all values are relegated to background doubtful but the desirability is also questionable. One extreme poses the question: “What should we strive for?” The behaviorists prefer to ask another: “What is?” A logical development of both positions might lead to a socially valuable answer to a third question: “What can be?” Society can use values. These values serve the very “real” purpose of pointing out goals toward which a community may direct its labor. Moreover, in the public classroom, a free society expects the development of an attitude which fosters and encourages a democratic view of mankind.

The third question is concerned with the institutional as opposed to the dynamic approach. Should one study an institution in the abstract or as it functions? To be specific, should one study the office of mayor

⁴ For an excellent summary of many efforts at citizenship education, see Franklin Patterson, *High Schools for a Free Society: Education for Citizenship in American Secondary Schools* (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1960), *passim*.

⁵ For a look at varying viewpoints, see the following: David E. Apter, “Theory and the Study of Politics,” *The American Political Science Review*, LI (1957), 747-762; Emmette S. Redford, “Reflections on a Discipline,” *The American Political Science Review*, LV (1961), 755-763; Arnold A. Rogow, “Comment on Smith and Apter; or Whatever Happened to the Great American Issues?,” *The American Political Science Review*, LI (1957), 763-775; David G. Smith, “Political Science and Political Theory,” *The American Political Science Review*, LI (1957), 734-746.

⁶ Redford, *Ibid*.

as a generalization (an institution); or should one study the actions of particular mayors in particular towns as they carry out the functions of their office? It is difficult to conceive a more arid study than the study of an institution robbed of life. Government is carried on by the actions of individuals within the framework of institutions. The study of institutions should follow this pattern.⁷

As a study, political science is a discipline in which a specialist works, using the scientific method.⁸ There is agreement that an object of inquiry can be illuminated to some extent by the gathering of empirical evidence in a systematic manner. Once found, the facts will not speak for themselves; but, they should not be stacked. The collector and interpreter must strive for objectivity. Finally, the method of reporting the findings should allow criticism and evaluation. Beyond this, the political scientist may prefer one particular element of his methodology. Selection of a method involves not only the problem but the inclinations of the political scientist and the materials available for use.⁹ The more prominent methods are classified as being generic, descriptive, analytical, case study, survey, experimental, and mathematical.

The experimental and mathematical approaches involve activities which are not designed for the use of the amateur. In the experimental approach, the researcher secures permission to test a hypothesis. In the mathematical approach, much use is made of statistics.

The other methodological processes are applicable in the social studies. As these approaches are defined, the reader acquainted with social studies skills will note the similarity between these approaches and activities suggested by proponents of concepts such as the unit, the problem-centered study, and the case study. A warning is justifiable here. The problem is to define and illustrate the approaches which may be used to develop skills in the classroom. Understandings and attitudes will no doubt be fringe benefits; but the skill, the ability to use the instruments, is what is being sought. Time is well spent if

⁷ For an extensive example of this approach, see Zechariah Chafee, Jr., *Documents on Fundamental Human Rights* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1951), vols. I-III bound as one volume. Note the suggested list of projects in the appendix to vol. II.

⁸ Stanley P. Wronski has included political science in his "A Proposed Breakthrough for the Social Studies," *Social Education*, XXIII (May, 1959), 215-218.

⁹ Alfred DeGrazia, *The Elements of Political Science* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1952), p. 8.

such skill is developed. Evaluation should reflect this goal.

One method used by the political scientist is the historical (generic) approach. The powers of the office of President may be studied by beginning with the original powers of the office and developing other powers in the framework of time. One approach to understanding the provision of the constitution denying bills of attainder is to study the use—and abuse—made of such bills in history. This method was used in the mid-twentieth century to defend the Fifth Amendment. Events are thus clarified by giving them historical perspective.¹⁰

To use the descriptive method, the observer simply approaches the subject of interest to himself and attempts to render an account of what he has observed. As an illustration, the Francis W. Parker School of Chicago has developed a unit on politics which requires students to observe the campaign headquarters of a political party and to write a description of their observation.¹¹ The requirement that students attend meetings of city councils, school boards, and political parties is frequently found in the lists of “suggested activities” in civics textbooks. This approach frequently lays the groundwork for the next method—analysis.

In the method of analysis, information is collected and classified into relevant categories. Observations of a political campaign will certainly lead to the generalization that issues are discussed by politicians and political parties. The Chicago school, noted above, requires each student to analyze the issues present in either a local or a national election. They ask, “What are the problems and conflicts which are discussed? What areas of agreement exist among parties and candidates? What are the basic differences?” The study is capable of further development. For example, in the local election, students might compile a list of problems they consider to be the basic problems of Chicago and compare this list with their analysis of the problems being discussed by candidates. Any problem on their list which is not being discussed could lead to an attempt to discover the reason. Is it so controversial

¹⁰ The use of this approach is discussed in Vernon Van Dyke, *Political Science: A Philosophical Analysis* (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1960), p. 17.

¹¹ The unit on politics is reported by Sonya H. Steinberg, “Pupils, Politics, and Politicians,” *Social Education*, XXIII (May, 1959), 215-218. For information on the descriptive approach see De Grazia *op. cit.*, p. 17. Other activities of this type can be found in materials published for the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs by the National Council For the Social Studies.

that no one wishes to touch it? Is it not really an issue? No matter how far the process is carried—and it could be carried much farther—in collecting information which adds meaning to the generalization, the method of analysis has been used.¹²

The case study is a particularized study. An understanding of the reaction of Chicago to prohibition would provide a concrete example in which the arguments for prohibition and the legalized control of whiskey may be studied. A history of the Crump period in Memphis, Tennessee, would aid in an understanding of the political “boss.” The experience of a city in which the school board has the right to submit a rejected budget proposal to referendum would indicate the reasonableness, or lack of it, in such a proposal. Conflicts between labor and management and the attitude of these two groups can be indicated by specific cases. The work of Oliver and Baker,¹³ as well as that of Starr,¹⁴ demonstrates that students can use this method. Although limited to one example, the case study lends itself to the making of tentative conclusions which can be checked by further study of similar cases. Hypotheses—the models of the economists—can be built and examined as to their structural soundness. In addition, controversial issues can be handled by allowing students to reach their own conclusions.

The survey approach is not as easy to delimit as the others. On the one hand, it expands the uses of the methods already defined. On the other hand, it may be conceived in terms of polls and questionnaires. The application of the principles of the survey approach to the methods discussed above tends to increase the validity of conclusions. The study of the abuses of power which led to the bill of attainder could result in the supposition that rights are founded in the response of men to actions which they consider inequitable. The subjection of the Bill of Rights in its entirety to the same study would make the decision more valid. If students in the Chicago study were required to expand their study to several visits to different campaign centers, it would add depth and breadth to the method of observation. Analysis can be handled

¹² Leslie Lipson, *The Great Issues of Politics* (New York: Prentice Hall, 1954), pp. 75-77.

¹³ Donald Oliver and Susan Baker, “The Case Method,” *Social Education*, XXIII (January, 1959), 25-28.

¹⁴ Isidore Starr, “Teaching the Bill of Rights,” *Social Education*, XXIII (December, 1959), 373-378.

similarly. An analysis of the problems of Chicago, already suggested, would include a list of the problems of a metropolitan city. The use of newspapers to build similar listings for New York, St. Louis, Detroit, Houston, Denver, and San Francisco, followed by a comparison of these lists, would indicate some of the problems of metropolitan cities in the United States which are likely to be issues in politics. The case study also lends itself to this approach. Oliver and Baker have successfully used the case study. One case would have given some understanding. Certainly, the Homestead case would be useful. The use of many case studies involving labor-management relations were of course far more valuable. It was through such a survey of cases that Oliver and Baker made their study. A high school student at Peabody Demonstration School was asked to survey several statements of political rights: the Magna Carta, the Petition of Rights, the English Bill of Rights, and the Bill of Rights. She was asked to list the rights in each and to compare them. Her conclusion was:

Since the American colonists who drew up the [American] Bill of Rights were heirs of the English heritage, it was natural that they expect the rights which their ancestors had gained. It is not out of the ordinary that Amendments 1,2,3,4,5, and 7 can be found in whole or part in previous English documents. This changes my view of the Middle Ages.

Do not allow the sophisticated conclusion to obscure the fact that she successfully employed the method of the political scientist, handling documentary material in the bargain. The skill was within her reach.

The second aspect of the survey was equated with polls. Such a poll may seek either factual information or opinion. Students in an American history class studying World War I could compile a list of causes of the war as given by their parents. In a study of the United Nations, they could secure the opinion of their parents regarding the buying of bonds. Ideally, students could interview authorities in either of these fields and secure a more "factual" sampling.

Having emphasized the need for skills and skill building and having defined the methods of political science and illustrated ways in which these tools may be made a part of the curriculum, it is now possible to demonstrate how these tools may be translated into the classroom. The examples are cited to show the possibility of skill development.

A survey of *Social Education* for the years 1957-1960 results in three reports of the successful use of the case study. An example where the process of observation and analysis was used is also reported.

Starr developed evidence in support of the teaching of the Bill of Rights by the case study. He suggested starting with dramatic cases and moving to a more sophisticated level. Following is one of the dramatic initiatory cases suggested:

A fifteen-year-old boy in Ohio is charged with murder. Arrested on Friday night, he is questioned by relays of police officers from midnight to 5 A.M. Kept in jail for three days without being permitted to see his family or counsel he finally confesses and is arraigned. He appeals on the grounds of due process.¹⁵

For more sophisticated cases of court decisions, it is suggested that the "Recent Supreme Court Decisions" of *Social Education* be used. Other examples suggested are "Thomas Jefferson's conception of liberty," and "Abraham Lincoln's conception of liberty."¹⁶

Philip Vern Slyck's report on the use of "The Great Decisions Approach" to foreign policy study is another example of the successful use of this method.¹⁷ Oliver and Baker, as recorded above, successfully used this method of teaching labor management difficulty at both the seventh and eleventh grade levels.

Beyond this literature, each of the methods was tried in a regularly scheduled section of world history at the Peabody Demonstration School. The activities were introduced through a study of England which emphasized the development of the constitutional rights of Englishmen. The entire class was asked to work on the topic, "The Rights of Englishmen: 1066-1950." They were able to draw these from a body of historical material through the process of analysis. Two boys made use of the historical method to demonstrate the meaning of the Writ of Habeas Corpus. Another student used the biography of Sir Thomas More in a case study to show what is meant by that provision of the United States Constitution which denies Congress the power to pass bills of attainder. The work of the girl who surveyed various

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 374.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 374-378.

¹⁷ Philip Vern Slyck, "The Great Decisions Program," *Social Education*, XXII (January, 1958), 25-26.

statements of political rights has already been used to illustrate that approach. The result was that students of varying abilities, in grades 9-12, successfully employed the methods.

Generalizations about activities for the middle grades are possible also. A specific activity can then be examined to determine whether it is possible to use activities now in use to develop methodological skills. The study of principles such as toleration and democracy could be built around the lives of outstanding men in history. The descriptive ability could be developed by visits to meetings of city councils, courts, service organizations, and the like. The analytic approach could utilize current events materials. Both fictional and true studies of human life can be used to foster the case study approach. Surveys should be kept simple but information about local communities can be gathered.

The report of an activity used by students in the middle grades in Philadelphia schools is illustrative. The pupils' task is to make a study of their community. By identifying its strengths and weaknesses, they hope to plan an ideal community. With the aid of interposed parentheses, this activity demonstrates one way of introducing work which partakes of the tools of political science:

The pupils make detailed maps showing land use, each pupil taking ■ particular block. They noticed the dirt and noise of industry near their homes. They looked to see where boys and girls played—often in narrow streets or on vacant lots and dumps. They watched children cross streets in heavy traffic and disappear in overcrowded, run-down homes. (Descriptive)

They were surprised to count three candy stores in one block and to find no library within walking distance of their school. They talked about their trips with parents and neighbors. (Survey)

Back in school, pupils placed their individual maps side by side. They brought their communities to life in large maps of the entire neighborhood and their lettering showed locations of "dirty lots," "row houses," "smelly slaughterhouses," "smoky factories," "taverns," and "stores." Lists were made of the neighborhood's assets and of spots that were harmful to the wholesome life of the community. (Analysis)¹⁸

The historical approach could be used in an effort to determine how

¹⁸ For details, see C. W. Hunnicutt (ed.), *Social Studies for the Middle Grades: Answering Teachers' Questions* (Washington: National Council For the Social Studies, 1960), p. 62.

cities develop problem areas. The work of each pupil in surveying his own block is illustrative of the case study.

What of the primary grades? An illustrative example has been reported from Miami, Ohio. The activity is entitled "Our Village Government." Starting with a desire to learn how their local community was governed, a class of second grade pupils did the following: they visited the mayor; they determined the duties of the mayor and city council; they visited various governmental offices; they returned to their class and built a city hall; deciding to elect their own mayor and city council, they constructed a simple civil service examination; they conducted an election and used the secret ballot; the council functioned, appointing committees of the local government and discussing the issues which the real government was facing. The conclusion reached in evaluating the activity was that the unit had yielded many understandings.¹⁹ In this project, the skills of the political scientist could have been developed; the report would indicate that they were.

If it be granted that the tools of the political scientist are the basic portion of his discipline which should become a part of general education, three long-range implications follow:

1. Prospective social studies teachers must be trained in methodology.
2. The fact that one of the major purposes of social studies is to provide those skills necessary for meeting problems which can not be anticipated, must gain increased status.
3. More conscious stress, and a more methodological step-by-step process, must replace the incidental use of the skills of the social disciplines.

The introduction of these skills in an organized manner would help to develop responsible and capable citizenship.

¹⁹ See Mary Willcockson (ed.), *Social Education of Young Children: Kindergarten-Primary Grades* (Washington: National For the Social Studies, 1950), pp. 39-40.

The Methods of the Behavioral Scientist as Tools of Learning

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One of the most important phases of man's existence is that of interpersonal relationships. Man is a social being belonging to diverse overlapping groups, all of which have an effect on him and conversely through which he may have an effect on others. Sociology is the systematic study of man as a member of social groups.¹ To understand his behavior the sociologist must investigate the society of which man is a member, his personality make-up, and the culture in which both are immersed.

As a group, the sociologist, the social psychologist, and the cultural anthropologist are called behavioral scientists. Behavioral science is generally concerned with contemporary society and is particularly interested in the fact that several traits, quantities, or events vary together but also in learning the process by which one leads to another and the conditions necessary to this process. Most events are viewed as the consequence of more than one set of causes operating together in producing a given effect.

In the social sciences, in general, it is difficult and sometimes impossible to control all the interfering variables because of having to deal with human beings. The fact that the human cannot be manipulated as a laboratory animal and that each person brings to the study a set of values and emotions tends to present problems for which there are no clear-cut solutions at present. Therefore, the social scientist who attempts to predict an event runs the risk of being wrong. The social scientist then can only approximate a causal explanation of the phenomena which he studies.

Three types of study designs are used by researchers in the behavioral sciences.² These include cross-sectional, projected, and ex

¹ E. B. Wesley and S. P. Wronski, *Teaching Social Studies in High Schools* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1958), p. 521.

² Much assistance with the materials in the remaining portion of this paper was gained

post facto design.³ The cross-sectional approach makes controlled comparisons for a single date. The question may be asked: Is the treatment received by one group of individuals more conducive to good adjustment in later situations than is found to be true of a group who did not receive this treatment? In a master's thesis, Mandel analyzed the relationship between the duration of Boy Scout tenure in Minneapolis and later participation in community activities four years after leaving the organization.⁴ Another study of this type has shown the advantages of work relief over direct relief.⁵

The second method is the classical before-and-after approach which is referred to here as the projected experimental design. Reform in society often takes the form of social programs of treatment to arrive at the desired ends. This procedure sets out to study the effects of a program by surveying a community or group of individuals before the program is implemented and then again after the program has been functioning for a period of time. For example, the study of the effect of the establishment of a Boy's Club program on the incidence of juvenile crime in a neighborhood could be carried out. One experiment of this type dealt with the effects of a program of rural hygiene in Syria.⁶

The ex post facto design is a method which enables the researcher to generalize from the past to the present. The present situation is viewed as an effect of some previously existing set of causes. Two variations of this type may be found. One compares the *same individuals and families* at present and at some past time; for example, the study of the effects of length of high school education on economic adjustment. The other variation is the comparison of population in the *same areas* at present and at some past date. For instance, what effects

from books and pamphlets suggested by Dr. John W. Hoskins, Professor of Sociology, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee.

³ F. Stuart Chapin, *Experimental Designs in Sociological Research* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947), p. 32.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 35, citing Mandel, "A Controlled Analysis of the Relationship of Boy Scout Tenure and Participation to Community Adjustment" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Minnesota, 1938).

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 41, citing F. S. Chapin and J. A. Jahn, "The Advantages of Work Relief Over Direct Relief in Maintaining Morale in St. Paul," *American Journal of Sociology*, July, 1940, pp. 13-22.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 55, citing Stuart C. Dodd, *A Controlled Experiment on Rural Hygiene in Syria* (Publications of the Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Social Science Series No. 7. Beirut: American University of Beirut, 1934), 336 pp.

have changes in socio-economic factors in the last twenty years had on college attendance in the South?

In all three of these approaches there are several ways of gathering data for analysis. No one of these is used exclusively in any given approach but is combined with others to ensure the greatest accuracy in drawing hypotheses from the information gained. Some of these methods of data collecting are the case study method, the survey, the interview, observation (controlled and otherwise), statistical measurement (psychometric, sociometric), and projective methods such as the sociodrama.

The case study is used rather widely in studies of society and is utilized to amass information concerning either individuals or groups. It is a study in depth as every facet of interpersonal and intergroup relationship is probed. It is not uncommon for a sociologist to be asked to study a community for the purpose of gathering data as a basis for hypotheses concerning needed reforms. Urban renewal, slum clearance, traffic control, and similar problems may be approached by this method.⁷

The survey is quite similar in that it is a way of amassing information from which a hypothesis or a series of hypotheses may be drawn. In this method, however, the researcher is looking at a limited number of human traits or factors in society. In the survey the behavioral scientist investigates and gathers data concerning similar situations in order to draw general conclusions which may be useful in local planning. For instance, several communities with urban renewal projects may be studied for the purpose of planning local projects.⁸

The interview is used either in a highly structured sense or as an unstructured procedure. The structured interview in the form of a questionnaire yields specific information and is often used in procedures such as poll taking, and is a significant factor in the federal census. The unstructured interview may yield less specific but perhaps more important information particularly in studying individuals.⁹

⁷ Marie Jahoda, Morton Deutsch, and Stuart W. Cook, *Research Methods in Social Relations* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1951), pp. 42-47.

⁸ For further information on this method of data collection see McCormick and Francis, *op. cit.*, pp. 28-30. See also, Mildred B. Parton, *Surveys, Polls, and Samples* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950).

⁹ Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook, *op. cit.*, Chapter VI, and also McCormick and Francis, *op. cit.*, Chapter VI, gives additional information concerning interview techniques.

Observation of behavior is another way of gathering information which can be highly structured and used to serve a specific purpose such as in the use of electric traffic counters. The collecting of impressions from new residents in a neighborhood is also a form of observation closely akin to the interview. The provision made in some schools for watching children in play groups through "one-way windows" is another type of observation.¹⁰

Measurement is a means of gathering information from a sample of the population which is used as a basis for generalizations. Psychometric techniques may yield significant data when it is impossible to deal with the total population. In studying individuals, intelligence, ability, and aptitude testing may be used. Evaluation of procedures, prediction of success, or classification of groups may all be outcomes of a good measurement program.

The use of sociometry is quite familiar to many teachers who have used the sociogram in their classroom. The sociometric scale is used to measure interaction within the social group. Scales have been developed which have been utilized to measure social distance, neighborhood influences, friendship constellations, attitudes and interests of members of the family, social status, socioeconomic status, and home environment. In this process a series of points or classes are established and each individual is rated in all points on a scale. It is an attempt to measure morale and personal adjustment.¹¹

Sociodrama is only one of the many projective techniques used to gather information about individuals. It consists of playing roles similar to those taken in life situations. It is the acting out of a problem in social relationships by means of a short spontaneous skit. This role playing can be made an important educational experience for improving role taking in real life. The skit begins with the interests of the students, is staged by volunteer players before and with an audience, and is evaluated by the entire group as to what has happened.¹²

¹⁰ Additional material concerning the use of observation techniques may be found in Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook, *op. cit.*, Chapter V.

¹¹ Most of the newer textbooks in teaching the social studies deal with sociometry. Two other good sources are Helen Hull Jennings, *Sociometry in Group Relations* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1948), and Mary L. Northway, *A Primer of Sociometry* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1952).

¹² A good discussion of this technique may be found in Richard E. Gross and Leslie D. Zeleny, *Educating Citizens for Democracy* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1958),

These methods of approach and data collection can and should be presented to students at all levels of education in order to produce functioning citizens who meet problems with confidence. The students who pass through the social science classroom are the potential social scientists of tomorrow and any skills which they master and make a part of their problem solving equipment can serve them well in the years ahead.

In both psychometry and sociometry a knowledge and understanding of elementary statistics is essential. More and more the use of statistical procedures is becoming a part of social science research, particularly in the area of behavioral science.

The fundamental mathematical skills needed to perform the basic statistical operations of tests and measurements should be developed early in today's schools. It is becoming increasingly difficult to read the professional literature in the social sciences without an understanding of these skills and terminology.

Practice in the methodology of the researcher can begin as early as the primary grades. Of course research at this level cannot be as profound or earthshaking as in higher grades but the students can profit by simple collection procedures. A first grade teacher stated that students in her class enjoyed the task of looking through magazines for pictures to illustrate a study of the home, family life, and the farm.¹³ After the pictures are collected and the stories read in the class the procedure followed in some schools is to have the students compose a verbal summary which is written by the teacher. A group project gives the students the experience of working together as a group, of evaluating material, and of summarizing the major points.

The case study has been adapted to the primary grades through the study of a country or region. Pupils in a second grade made a study of Borneo making a rather exhaustive study of life in that country. The points of difference from our culture were evident and comparisons could be made.¹⁴

The interview technique is used quite normally by children. In a unit on the home and family, which is typical of the primary level,

pp. 488-497; also J. L. Moreno, *Sociodrama* (New York: Beacon House, 1944), and Morton J. Sobel, "Sociodrama in the Classroom," *Social Education*, April, 1952, pp. 166-8.

¹³ Mrs. Ann Weaver, First Grade Teacher, Davidson County, Tennessee.

¹⁴ Peabody Demonstration School, 1961-62.

the pupils could interview their parents with the idea of writing a short story about them.

A field trip to a farm to observe farm animals may be a part of a unit on farm life. The techniques of the interview would perhaps be combined as the children asked questions concerning the things which they were observing.

At the primary level one of the favorite techniques used is that of storytelling. The children are asked to tell about trips and events which have happened. Perhaps sociodrama could be adapted to these storytelling sessions. The students could be encouraged to act out the experiences which they have had.

In the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades it becomes easier to find ways in which to present the various methods of the behavioral scientist. The case study becomes quite useful here as the students are concerned with the study of other countries of the world and with sections of our own country. Here the sociological concept of culture can be developed and these countries compared to our own.¹⁵

Survey techniques at the middle grade level might be applied to answering the question: How does geography effect the ways in which people earn a living? The students could compare ways of earning a living locally, with other parts of the country, and of the world. A class study of the ways of earning a living represented by families of the members of the class could be done.

Observation methods may be developed in the unit on making a living through visits to manufacturing concerns to observe the various jobs involved in producing the final product. A series of visits to key industries in the local area could lead to a rather wide knowledge of the jobs in demand in the community. Generalizations as to the future could be made.

The interview is also helpful in this type of unit. The children could interview people having various occupations using a simple questionnaire constructed by the class for the purpose. In planning procedures for the questionnaire each child would have the experience of constructing this type of instrument in light of obtaining useful knowledge about the subject being studied.

¹⁵ The idea that culture is to society what personality is to the individual. Material on the culture concept may be found in Wesley and Wronski, *op. cit.*, p. 528.

Another area of study in the middle grades is usually that of Latin America. In addition to the above methods of study, the sociodrama lends itself well to this area. A group of students in Fort Smith, Arkansas, decided to hold a Pan American Conference as a culminating activity to their study of South America. Each student was to be the representative of the country which he had studied.¹⁸

By the time he reaches the junior high school level, the student who has been exposed to the use of methodology throughout the elementary grades should be well prepared to make use of these skills. A typical unit studied in the junior high years is community government. This unit lends itself well to all of the methods mentioned. The students might begin by setting for their problem the study of city government to observe the developments or the extensions of services noted over the period of the city's existence. A typical survey activity could be the collection of clippings dealing with the activities of the city at the present time. Another group might list the services provided by the city government at present and compare them to those of the past. Then the question might be asked: Are these typical of similar cities in the neighborhood? Some members of the class might visit local government officials and question them concerning local government services which they represent. Other members might visit places such as a court session, the police department, and the hospital to observe the services in action. In a type of sociodrama the class could then re-enact a courtroom scene of their choosing, depicting the actions of the various people who take part.

At the senior high school level, there are all sorts of possibilities to develop the social research skills mentioned above. One exercise could contrast cultures. The teacher might show filmstrips dealing with other cultures and encourage pupils to express ideas indicating the need for our interest in other peoples. A comparison of life and institutions of other cultures with our own could be made. A second type of study could start with a discussion of what the world would be like without a world organization such as the United Nations and then lead into a case study of world organizations. A survey of the contributions of various immigrant groups to American life might be valuable in foster-

¹⁸ Henry Kronenberg (ed.), *Programs and Units in the Social Studies*, Curriculum Series #2 (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1941), p. 44.

ing appreciation of other groups.

In a class dealing with social problems, the subject of recreation might be approached in one way by having the class interview members of the community as to their leisure-time activities. Perhaps the presentation of a report which gives the types of recreation enjoyed by the average family would be valuable.

In a study of housing in the local community, a class might observe and take notes on all undesirable living conditions in town. These, when presented to the class, might point up the need for public housing and other areas for more intensive study. Some questions which might be used to carry on a case study of a community are:

1. What is Nashville like today?
2. What explains its development to its present form?
3. What do we want Nashville to be like in the future?
4. How can we make Nashville the city we want it to be?¹⁷

At the high school level, all sorts of material are available to serve as a basis for sociodrama. When social issues are being considered the conflicts between France and Algeria, capital and labor, the American Colonies and Great Britain, or over local issues may be used. Conflicts in Rome at the time of the Gracchi, Martin Luther and the Catholic Church, King John and the Magna Carta may serve as subjects for sociodramatization in World History. In American History, issues such as the Missouri Compromise, the debate over the Constitution, and secession may be selected. The area of current affairs, also, offers many topics of current interest.

It is evident that the methods of presentation discussed above are not new. The point is that the social studies teacher using them should be conscious of the methods being used and should provide his students with the practice necessary to familiarize the pupils with them. Methods of attacking social problems should be considered as important to young people as are the communications and number skills. Man, after all, is not an island unto himself but is constantly called upon to work and deal with other human beings in the solution of common problems.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 138-139.

Social Science, the College, and Public Affairs

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How does a liberal arts college interpret its role as mediator and expositor of public policies? How does an institution of higher education arrive at a position of engagement in public life and thought which will lead effectively and inevitably to an understanding of its vital concern, on behalf of its students, for the kind of world and the kind of values that reflect the best of human wisdom?

Though the answers to the above questions are mainly philosophical in their resolution, the actual *modus operandi* for coming to grips with these questions of values and understandings is outlined, for Culver-Stockton College, in the restructured vertical program of general education now entering its second year of operation. The capstone social science course for this program, *American Citizenship and World Responsibility*, strikes into some new ground in the area of public involvement which may be of interest for liberal arts colleges in general and planners of general education programs in the social sciences in particular.

Social Science 401-402 is an experimental problems course. It is projected as a two semester, six credit hour course, required of all seniors, and not open to underclassmen. The format is that of one large lecture session each week, followed by two hours of small group discussion later in the week. A series of twenty-two problem-units is developed, each covering one, two, or three weeks. These units make use of varying methods and materials for the exploration of pressing issues of our time. The entire teaching staff of the college is involved, in varying degrees, in this learning-teaching process, the extent of individual participation being dependent upon the nature of the unit being developed.

The "large lecture" sessions are not to be thought of in the formalistic sense, but are actually used to present by a variety of methods

whatever background material is necessary to guide the small groups into intelligent and useful discussion. These methods may include panel discussions, symposiums, films and filmstrips, tapes and recordings, or any other means of communication that will serve to present the problems and their backgrounds clearly. Whenever possible, outside experts in the fields which are involved in the problem-units are brought to campus to lecture or act as resource persons. These resource persons and guest lecturers are highly qualified academicians, and approach the subject matter of the unit through the careful methods of their own disciplines. Discussions are never allowed to degenerate into exchanges of opinion unsupported by scholarship.

The source method is often used to bring the actual tools of research into the classroom. Printed records, journals, diaries, letters, and public documents have been used. Original research in the form of polls and field investigations is a regular and continuing part of the course work. Readings are assigned from the viewpoint of providing a widening insight into problems of a contemporary nature which have deep historical roots. Scholarly journals, professional and popular periodicals, and careful attention to newly published materials make it possible for the student to mature in his understanding of scholarship and the rules of valid evidence.

The problem-units themselves cover a wide spectrum of subject matter. The course is interdisciplinary and, in fact, interdivisional. The following titles may afford some notion of the scope of the material covered.

Contemporary Social Patterns
Society and Its Misfits
Race Relations and Minority Rights
Labor Problems in an Expanding Economy
The Marxist View of Man
Political Dissent in a Democracy
The Medical Frontier

Readings for the course are likewise quite heterogeneous.

Alexis de Tocqueville, *Democracy in America*
D. W. Brogan, *The American Character*
Samuel Lubell, *The Future of American Politics*

J. S. Mill, *Essay on Liberty*

Max Weber, *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit
of Capitalism*

Jacques Barzun, *The House of Intellect*

In addition to the above, other books, newspapers, and periodicals are listed as readings for the separate problem-units. These readings provide the basis for a series of precis which develop themes similar to the units.

Whatever techniques are used in developing the units, our attention is always primarily given to the so-called “controversial” issues. This is in the nature of the course, and in the nature of social science. Inevitably, strong emotions will surround the conflicting opinions and beliefs already present in the thinking of students. So also, will these emotional connotations hedge about the efforts of our faculty to investigate these problems in a non-partisan, open-minded manner. It is difficult, for example, for students and faculty alike to study “The Marxist View of Man” in a completely detached manner, unswayed by current catchwords and casually acquired opinion. Yet, the attempt must be made, for it is just at such critical junctures that the concept of unbiased scholarship is so very important in the training of college men and women.

It is our intention that this course should act as a culminating educational experience for our students and deal in as practical a way as possible with the public problems faced by thinking Americans in the mid-twentieth century. The ends of the course are not sought in pat solutions to problems. Nor will those ends be served by neglect of values for some merely practical solution, that may have only the expediency of the moment to recommend it. Instead, it is hoped that this course may relate the values we hold to the problems we face in such a way as to throw light on morally valid, and possible, courses of action.

Students are challenged on the basis of their stated beliefs often. They are asked to defend their opinions, not merely in the rough and tumble of discussions, but, more importantly, in their writing, citing sources, winnowing fact from opinion, and re-examining the sources of their casually received background of subject matter. Students who have talked glibly of the “population explosion” or “the Communist

menace” are asked to read Malthus and Lenin and to report on these original sources, not on what *TIME* magazine has to say about them. After the research is in progress, then perhaps what *TIME* magazine has to say may become peripherally important, insofar as it reflects the popularization of a complex issue, but the scholarly approach is never lost sight of.

Social Science 401-402 demands a great amount of original work from both faculty and student body. Whether the problem is to survey a section of the American press, or to compare the values of business education majors with those of other disciplines, long hours of work in statistical design, survey work and evaluation are the rule. Under this regimen, the interesting reaction has been one of intense concern for accuracy and exact definition. The students have taken the lead in setting the highest standards for the work of the course and for the specific projects they have been engaged in.

The integrated approach to the social sciences is still a development viewed with mixed emotions on many American college campuses. The success, or lack of it, that any college has with such a program may offer valued clues as to the appropriateness of interdisciplinary social science programs in general and as to the effectiveness of certain models in particular. The Culver-Stockton experience is offered as one more case in point. Our effort has been to make the *American Citizenship and World Responsibility* course as demanding intellectually and as sound in scholarship as any established course in a traditional discipline. We are committed to the belief that a challenging course must be a demanding course, and the structure of Social Science 401-402 attempts to bridge the gap between the disciplines without eroding away the subject matter or blunting the tools of scholarship.

Philosophy of Education in the Twentieth Century

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Educational developments of the twentieth century in the United States are among the most important in all history. During these years elementary education has become universal and compulsory. The high school has come of age, and especially since World War II has become nearly universal as to the enrollment of adolescent youth. Both the junior high school and the junior college are products of the present century, and both institutions have attained a large measure of public and professional acceptance. The growth of higher education during the same period is especially impressive. In approximately 2000 colleges and universities of all types more than 4,500,000 students are enrolled, thus constituting about one-third of those Americans usually referred to as the college-age group. Pursuant to the foregoing statements of fact, it has become almost trite to note that one-fourth of all people in this nation are involved in the educational enterprise.

The contrast between the educational situation now, and earlier in America; and the further contrast between this country and most others of the present day is noteworthy. The fact that this is the only large nation in history ever to have promoted a trend toward universality of enrollment above the elementary level—is made more significant by noting that even in the United States, relatively high selectivity was the approved mode until recent years.

In trying to account for this uniqueness—a uniqueness violently disparaged by some, the democratic idealisms of the American people cannot be ignored. Such idealisms, however, are not peculiar to America, nor to Americans of the twentieth century. Arrayed with the influence of the concept of equality of opportunity for all children and youth, the large fact of economic and social change is properly to be regarded as largely the source—yet partly the result of the continuous increase of the popularization of education at all levels

above the elementary.

Industrialization and mechanization of the national economy with the corollary of urbanized and suburbanized living have had profound impact, not only upon the American thinking about education; but upon the American realization of the necessity for having the children and youth of all the people in school. Most obviously this means that in an urbanized society children and youth cannot profitably be occupied at home. There are no cows to milk and there is no cotton to chop or to pick. In the industrialized economy, children and youth are neither wanted nor needed for remunerative employment. The time and energies of the young are thus able to be channeled into the educational enterprise. R. M. Hutchins has said that "the young are sent to school to keep them out of worse places." Notwithstanding the fact of possible partial validity of this statement, it is yet true that industrialization and urbanization have done much not only to materialize the dream of education for all, as implied by democratic idealism; but also to create the wealth necessary to make it financially practicable. Add to this the knowledge that the economy, depending more and more on the refinement of industrial processes, demands increasingly, the enlargement and improvement of the education of the worker. Thus it is realized, that in America, the universalization of education is not merely a huge attainment in which satisfaction may be taken, but also represents a necessity to which no acceptable alternative has been found.

Much is pertinent to the philosophy of education. Before 1900 when American society was mostly rural, and its economy mostly agrarian, education above the lower levels was highly selective. The philosophy of Idealism was highly influential. Thus, in the view of most of those then predominant in educational leadership, fundamental reality was conceived as being non-material, eternal, and universal. Fundamental truth was regarded as being immutable and objective to man. By contrast, the mechanized industrialization of the urbanized society of the twentieth century was accompanied by the coming to prominence of a different philosophy—Pragmatism. In this, reality is natural, human, experiential. Truth and value are subjective to the living, active experience of man. All things are relative to time, place, and circumstance. The worthwhileness of anything is to be tested by the

results of its application. Did the new philosophy produce the economic and social changes marked in the twentieth century, or merely provide their interpretation, and their rationale? Some of both, undoubtedly; but their going-along-togetherness is indubitable.

For education, important implications have included a revision of what seemed to be necessary or appropriate to be learned in school. Modifications of the idea of fixed standards of achievement to be required of all pupils similarly have been widely accepted. Both of these relate directly to the universalization of enrollment in school with consequent broadening of the variety of pupil interests and needs, and the resultant increase in the variation of pupil capabilities. Thus, the curriculum has moved from being rather narrowly academic to that in which practically all aspects of human knowledge and activity have place. Additionally, the concept of fixed requirements of attainment universally applicable, has been subject to the powerful forces of erosion represented by the statement that "the pupil himself is the standard." The slow learner and the pupil of non-academic talent is to be encouraged to progress at his own best rate, and in fields of endeavor appropriate to his own interests, even as this is so for the book-minded, academically talented student. The "child-centered school," and "adjustment to individual differences" have become terms to conjure with, along with "flexible standards of promotion," and "dynamic curriculum." Education, then, as influenced, if not dominated by pragmatic viewpoint has tended, strongly, to become all things to all people. In a rapidly changing society, the shibboleth of adjustment to the dynamics of a new age gains increasing prestige.

Not to be ignored here is the fact of criticisms and attacks of considerable vigor against educational trends of recent years. These have emanated in part from the resurgent conservatism which has found encouragement from the stresses of the so-called "cold war." Some of the attacks have been vitriolic and destructive; others, carefully considered, sincerely offered, and constructive in intent. The Bestors, the Mortimer Smiths, Admiral Rickover, and the Council for Basic Education, are to be carefully distinguished from many others whose motives and whose understanding merit respect.

The growing power of neo-scholasticism, both ecclesiastical and secular, has stressed an increased emphasis on a perennialist view of

education. The philosophy of natural realism, and the philosophy of existentialism—if it is a philosophy—have also had some support.

These have brought needful and sobering thought to educational leadership, but have done little to change the major direction of continuing developments. The “cold war” with its demands for stepped-up emphasis on certain subject fields has only served to implement further the pragmatic emphasis on the necessary flexibility of education as a means of adjusting to the processes of social change. A larger matter is the greatly increased intrusion of the federal government into the educational enterprise, based on the premise that education is vital to the defense effort of the nation. This deserves and requires extended treatment as a topic unto itself, but it does make necessary at this point, the observation that federalization of education, so strongly the characteristic of the Soviet Union, could become in America, the major instrument of the totalitarianism which the nation is now committed to oppose.

For the professional educator and especially for the philosophically concerned, there is much food for thought in the familiar facts thus far related. No knowledgeable person doubts that the universalization of the supra-elementary levels of education brings into the school for extended stay the dull, the uninterested, the lazy, the recalcitrant, and the unappreciative boys and girls, along with those who in an earlier time would have been regarded as good educational material. This means, to many, that “school” should replace “education” in references such as those of this paper. Universalized enrollment in school is one thing. Universal education above the levels of the fundamentals is to be regarded by the critical as not only without precedent, but without possibility. All can be placed in school—only some can be educated. Certainly it must be agreed that only a minority of students can become mathematicians, scientists, linguists, et cetera. The others, equally deserving, but with more limited capabilities, academically, are to be taught, motivated, challenged, and helped to develop whatever their worthwhile possibilities may be. They, too, are Americans with the right to an education. They, too, have their needed contribution to make to a democratic society.

Because of the rapidly changing qualities of the present age, uncertainties are an inevitable characteristic. Uncertainties are productive

of varying, and oppositional proposals for dealing with the problems which result. Thus, regarding education, as it is with much else, there is conflict, there are charges and counter-charges, and the storms of criticism are tended to assume large proportions. As it is inevitable that such be the case, it is also true that it should be so. While remembering always to guard against those who really do not believe in universal education—and against the extremists who, sensing defects, would burn the barn to get rid of the rats—educational leadership can be assured that it is through the social interaction of freely expressed interest in education by all concerned that improvement can best take place.

In a day of widespread disturbance; in a time of restless uncertainty, those whose discipline is the Philosophy of Education have both opportunity and obligation. Here it can be said with Brubacher that “the educator resorts to philosophy to hold a lamp to the feet of practice. . .” Unless the study of the Philosophy of Education with resultant clarification of thought can impart integrity and direction to the tumult of educational involvement it will lose its reason for existence. Whether in the latter part of the twentieth century, it is to represent a pleasant, innocuous intellectual exercise, largely unrelated to the actual workings of the educational process; or something which meaningfully will provide reason and purpose to the educational enterprise remains to be seen. The role of the student, and especially of the teacher of this important discipline is vital in the turbulent times of the present age. The successful performance of this role depends upon the intelligence, the intellectual honesty, and the dedication of those who bear and deserve the title, “philosopher of education.”

PEABODY BIMONTHLY BOOKNOTES

Selected Professional and Cultural Books for ■ Teacher's Library

JANUARY, 1963

Booknotes Committee: Susan B. Riley, William W. FitzGerald
Isaac Copeland, Chairman

Secretary to the Committee: Leslie Noel

Annotators for this Issue: Robert Gilstrap, Juanita Prater, H. Craig Sipe, Myrtle Bomar, Katherine Hall, Mabel Corry, Stewart E. Fraser, John Hoskins, Becky M. Daugherty, Anna Loe Russell, Philip M. Slates, Chiles Van Antwerp, L. S. Wrightman, T. P. Yeatman, William J. Griffin, Scott S. Withrow.

Children's Literature

BROCK, EMMA L. *Mary's Secret*. Knopf, 1962. 83 p. \$2.75.

Mary was nine years old, and with the help of her father and a friend she built ■ tree house. It was perfect. The intriguing part of the experience was a secret, which no one would ever guess. Many exciting things made the summer go fast, and third grade girls will enjoy them over and over. Lively black and white illustrations add to the fun.

BULLA, CLYDE ROBERT. *Benito*. Crowell, 1962. 84 p. \$2.95.

The determination of a little boy in South America provides the plot for this delightful story about the survival of the creative spirit. Children with "gifts" will enjoy Benito's struggles to make the best use of his life. For middle graders.

CALDWELL, JOHN C. and ELSIE. *Our Neighbors in Korea*. Day, 1961. 48 p. \$2.19.

This is another of the World Neighbor Series which is written especially for children in primary grades. The story of Korea and her people includes all the aspects of life there, and is written in a manner which will be very clear and interesting to the young child. Very well done.

COLEMAN, HILA. *Mrs. Darling's Daughter*. Morrow, 1962. 191 p. \$2.95.

Tension between teenage daughter and her mother, both of whom have dominant personalities, is the theme of this story. As the daughter is allowed to try out some of her own ideas, she reaches a better understanding of herself and ■ more accepting attitude of her mother.

COOK, FRED J. *Theodore Roosevelt*. Lippincott, 1961. 190 p. \$2.95.

The ever exciting life of the weak boy who became a tiger of a man is vigorously retold in this book. The aggressive, competitive spirit of this great American as revealed in this book should appeal to young boys of a similar nature.

DEJONG, DOLA. *The Level Land*. Scribner's, 1961. 176 p. \$2.95.

This is a reissue of a book that has proven to be popular with upper intermediates and junior high students. Creating a vivid image of Holland during the days of World War II, the author recounts the activities of a family in a time of crisis. An extensive glossary is included.

DOUGLAS, WILLIAM O. *Muir of the Mountains*. Houghton Mifflin, 1961. 179 p. \$2.25.

The little known story of John Muir, one of our first great conservationists who saved for his nation the beauties of Yosemite, ■ few of the majestic sequoia groves, and other natural wonders being plundered by greedy men has been effectively told by ■

distinguished American. Although unfamiliar to most students, Muir's purposeful activities should inspire young readers to think more seriously about their heroes.

FAIT, GLADENE. *We Do as the Animals Do*. Denison, 1962. Unp. \$2.75.

The author proposes in this book that, by imitating several animals children can have a great deal of fun and develop maximum fitness. This is meant for kindergarten or first grade activity, and will be read aloud. Sturdy format and full page illustrations throughout.

FEDERTAL, KARAH. *Stone of Peace*. Abelard Schuman, 1961. 188 p. \$3.00.

This unattractive book, written in adult style and sprinkled with foreign terms will most likely fail to be very popular with children. Teachers, however, may find this warm story of an Arab boy and a Jewish boy's friendship helpful in developing an appreciation for the differences in human beings that are too often the sources of problems rather than pleasure.

FOX, MARY VIRGINIA. *Treasure of the Revolution*. Westminster, 1961. 191 p. \$3.00.

A treasure chest, two young people, and a mission of great importance are the ingredients of this adventure story set in the days of the Revolutionary War. Although the book gives little factual information about the war, it should excite intermediate boys and girls who just want a good story.

LATTIMORE, ELANOR F. *The Bittern's Nest*. Morrow, 1962. 127 p. \$2.75.

A beautifully written story of a young girl's awareness of the equivocal world of adults. The setting is the low country near Charleston.

MAYNE, WILLIAM. *Glass Ball*. Dutton, 1962. 63 p. \$2.95.

The glass ball which Niko found in the sea while he was gathering seaweed for his father seemed to be magical. It happened on an important day; visitors were expected and the whole village was excited over coming events. But the ball took Niko and his friend Max into various experiences as it rolled here and there along the cobbled streets. Atmosphere of a Greek community

is well accented, well attained by lovely drawings.

MCCALL, EDITH. *Mail Riders*. Children's Press, 1961. 125 p. \$2.50.

Another collection of stories based on true facts that should give intermediate readers a realistic picture of the early difficulties in communication. Complete with a map of the old mail routes, this collection is a part of the Frontiers of America series.

MONTGOMERY, RUTHERFORD. *The Capture of West Wind*. Duell, Sloan, Pierce, 1962. 149 p. \$2.95.

This is an imaginative tale of how the Indians first captured and domesticated the wild horse. The author goes into considerable life and customs of the Indians.

MOODY, RALPH. *Wells Fargo*. Houghton Mifflin, 1961. 184 p. \$2.25.

Wells Fargo and its important role in the early days of the colorful California territory are excitingly described in this new edition to the North Star series. It proves again that fact is sometimes more exciting than fiction.

PODENDORF, ILLA. *Discovering Science on Your Own*. Children's Press, 1962. 157 p. \$4.50.

Choosing subjects that children in elementary school are most interested in, this well-known author draws from her classroom experience to give the reader a personal approach to the field of science. Each division of study begins with a definite question, and in the activity that follows the answer is explained and demonstrated. Lively impressive illustrations accompany the text and the whole make up is stimulating and attractive.

MISS FRANCES. *Stories and Poems To Enjoy*. Doubleday, 1962. 128 p. \$3.95.

Primary classes will welcome this collection which represents the favorite stories and poems of Miss Frances, some of which are her own. The book is beautifully made up with colored and black and white illustrations on each page, and a nice page arrangement using large clear type. It could not include as many as she wished,

but it covers a wide choice of interest and subject matter.

FULLER, LOIS HAMILTON. *Keo the Cave Boy*. Westminster, 1961. 128 p. \$2.75.

What was it like to be a cave boy? Using the knowledge that modern man has of his ancestors, the author has created an interesting story of a twelve-year-old boy who wants to become a man. Through these imaginary events, intermediates should gain valuable concepts about the cave man's meager use of language and his dangerous life.

HEADSTROM, RICHARD. *Adventures with a Hand Lens*. Lippincott, 1962. 220 p. \$4.25.

Every upper elementary student who has an inquiring mind and a magnifying glass will find some experiments that he must carry out as he comes upon the collection of fifty adventures with everyday objects to be studied. Illustrated by the author with beautiful black and white drawings, and written in informal style. It will be popular with those interested in science.

HUNTINGTON, HARRIET E. *Forest Giants*. Doubleday, 1962. 57 p. \$2.50.

This story of the California redwoods is a beautiful contribution to elementary libraries, packed with information in a very brief attractive style. Very readable as to type and sentence structure, the text is accompanied by a full page photograph by the author. Middle elementary readers will enjoy it immensely.

JEFFRIES, JEFF. *Beyond the Shining Mountains*. Roy, 1961. 188 p. \$3.25.

This series of stories telling of the men who traveled west to explore and chart the Rocky Mountains is accurately done, but it contains so much that has been told better in other books. Complete with well-drawn maps, the book's main asset is that it covers a great deal in one volume.

RIPLEY, SHELDON. *Ethan Allan*. Houghton Mifflin, 1961. 191 p. \$1.76.

Prepared for the intermediate historian, this retelling of the adventurous life of Ethan Allan successfully continues the Piper series of biographies. Nicely illustrated with

maps and two-tone pictures, the book should give new light to the Revolutionary War and the making of a hero.

UNICEF. *Hi Neighbor*. Hastings House, 1962. 64 p. \$2.95.

This series is aimed to give the American child a better understanding of the children of other countries, by use of songs, stories, games, and interesting facts about the country. It is well illustrated by photographs, and black and white drawings. Well edited for upper elementary reading.

Education and Psychology

BAUGHMAN, E. EARL and WELSH, GEORGE SCHLZGER. *Personality: A Behavioral Science*. Prentice Hall, 1962. 566 p. \$7.25.

This is a comprehensive coverage of the psychology of personality. Concepts of personality description and personality measurement are integrated in an unusual way.

BROWN, THOMAS J. and BANICH, SERAFINA. *Student Teaching in an Elementary School*. Harper, 1962. 241 p. \$4.00.

Written in a clear, simple, and direct style this book could well serve the student teacher as a ready reference handbook. It should not only prove informative but reassuring its detail on relationship and procedures. The chapters on planning seem especially helpful. As in the earlier secondary guide, an excellent removal manual for the supervising teacher is bound with the text.

CARTER, WILLIAM. *Learning To Teach in the Secondary Schools*. Macmillan, 1962. 432 p. \$6.50.

As you read you may easily imagine yourself in a recorded discussion with the authors. There are no lengthy listings of principles and points, but you surely find them in the course of the discussion, which is strong on all aspects of the personal qualities a teacher must possess and the adjustments he must make to succeed. Limited treatment is given to classroom procedure. Each chapter bibliography is especially complete.

GROSS, CARL and others. *School and Society*. Heath, 1962. 664 p. \$7.25.

An excellent collection of readings in educational foundation, and chiefly useful as a supplementary text for a course in philosophy of education and educational sociology.

HASKEY, LAURENCE. *This Is Teaching*. Scott, Foresman, 1962. 543 p. \$5.75.

This text really covers the entire field of teaching, both elementary and secondary with many interesting and illuminating summaries of pertinent information. It has two strongly unusual features in its section on readings in education and the reference manuals, both of which are informative and appropriate. This is a "meaty" book which merits the careful reading it requires.

HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J. and NEUGARTEN, BERNICE L. *Society and Education*. Allyn & Bacon, 1962. 585 p. \$6.95.

A revision of a most useful and comprehensive text on American educational sociology. This one should be kept handy as a detailed reference work for all school teachers; it is invaluable for all those connected with education in understanding the social, economic and political forces that influence their profession.

HELÝ, A.S.M. *New Trends in Adult Education*. UNESCO, 1962. 136 p. \$1.50.

An excellent study in the developments of adult education during the eleven-year period from 1949, when the International Conference on Adult Education was held at Elsinore, Denmark, through 1960, the close of the Montreal Conference.

HUMAYUN KABIR. *Indian Philosophy of Education*. Asia, 1962. 256 p.

This volume is somewhat misnamed. As a philosophy of Indian education it falls a long way short of the desired mark; as a general compilation of speeches given by an Indian on educational topics pertinent to India it is invaluable. The author discusses Indian educational problems in their traditional as well as in their Anglo-Indian setting. In addition he sees them in the light of international trends and lends his weight

towards the reform and extension of Indian education which is presently at the cross-roads—ambivalent yet eclectic in its goals.

KINKEAD, KATHERINE T. *Walk Together, Talk Together*. Norton, 1962. 101 p. \$3.75.

This a delightful, breezy, though fulsome account of one of the minor but most successful "exchanges of persons" schemes; sponsored by the American Field Service. The exchange program dispatches young American teen-agers all over the world, and arranges in return for the placement of overseas students throughout American high schools. The care and skill in selection procedures as well as the counseling and evaluation techniques used to safeguard the program would be the envy of any ivy league international program and foreign student advisor.

McKEAN, ROBERT. *Principles and Methods of Secondary Education*. Merrill, 1962. 336 p.

This is a concise, direct, and easily understood review of all the essentials of the secondary school—curriculum, methods, procedures, etc. Its strongest points are its inclusiveness, without unessential and tedious detail, and a marked clarity, and even effective simplicity, in the organization and presentation of the essentials in secondary school education.

MILLET, JOHN D. *The Academic Community: An Essay on Organization*. McGraw Hill, 1962. 265 p. \$5.95.

The academic community is a queer animal which defies typifying yet superficially lends itself to analytical description. The intelligent reminiscences of a university president are doubly valuable when discussed, as he is both scholar and administrator. The author touches succinctly though briefly on some of the main facets of academic life, the institutional patterns, the professors and the students. In addition he treats the reader to an analysis of the alumni, the built in pressure group deluxe which every senior college administrator ignores at his peril.

MONTAGU, M. F. ASHLEY. *Culture and the Evolution of Man*. Oxford, 1962. 376 p. \$2.95.

Thought-provoking discussion of the cultural factors in the physical evolution of man. Useful for anthropology and sociology classes.

MOORE, HARRY R. *Modern Education in America*. Allyn & Bacon, 1962. 303 p.

The author has presented in a relatively short volume a panorama of American education, from many of its multifarious aspects. While it is written for the neophyte to education it touches on a sufficiently wide group of subjects to interest both the intelligent and inquiring parent, as well as the apprentice teacher learning his trade.

NATIONAL ASS'N OF SOCIAL WORKERS. *School Social Work*. National Ass'n of Social Workers, 1962. 255 p.

Timely analysis of the role of social work in the field of education. Good text for social work classes.

NORDBERG, H. ORVILLE; and others. *Secondary School Teaching*. Macmillan, 1962. 400 p. \$6.00.

A good, very general, approach to teaching in the secondary school, with little detail on the various classroom procedures—the activities of learning. The interesting and different treatment is found in stage three—Teaching the Prescribed Curriculum—where in five chapters an excellent statement of purposes and procedures is supplied for the Fine Arts, the Language Arts, the Practical and Vocational Arts, Science and mathematics, and the Social Studies.

VAIZEY, JOHN. *Britain in the Sixties*. Penguin, 1962. 118 p. \$.85.

A critique of British schooling by an up and coming angry young English educator who writes in a most refreshing vein. He surveys the defects of the present selection methods in secondary schools and the inadequacies of higher education which he believes are critical for the future of Britain striving to keep her place in the race for industrial and technological superiority.

WIGGIN, GLADYS A. *Education and Nationalism*. McGraw Hill, 1962. 518 p. \$7.50.

A fresh approach to the history of American education, utilizing the vehicle of nas-

cent nationalism. The author uses extensively and successfully the work of previous "masters" in this field as well as skillfully blending in considerable unpublished dissertation research which otherwise may have lain idle. Chapters of special interest are those pertaining to the influences of foreign forces in American education, as well as a selection of historical vignettes illustrating the diverse nature of American educational development, such as the establishment of schools for "Negroes in Georgia," "in New Mexico," "in Hawaii," "in the Old Northwest."

Literature

BROOKS, VANWYCK. *Fenollosa and His Circle*. Dutton, 1962. 321 p. \$5.00.

In this book, Brooks has made another valuable contribution to the reconstruction of our picture of the intellectual and cultural life of America. Fenollosa (who "taught the Japanese to know their own art") is only one of eight Americans (such as George Catlin, Fanny Wright, and Randolph Bourne) dealt with in the best manner of Brooksonian biography.

SANFORD, MARCELLINE HEMINGWAY. *At the Hemingways*. Little, Brown, 1962. 244 p. \$4.95.

This book by Ernest Hemingway's sister concentrates attention on the Hemingway family rather than on the famous writer. The particular focus makes it, in some ways, all the more useful and interesting. It is, in spots, annoying, too; there is little attempt to view matters objectively.

YOUNG, G. M. *Victorian Essays*. Oxford, 1962. 216 p. \$1.85.

The collection of twenty-five essays originally delivered as lectures or published as reviews or occasional pieces is intended as a companion to Young's *Victorian England: The Portrait of an Age*. Young was a learned and penetrating scholar; these essays are valuable, but rather special in their interests.

Music

CASTELLINI, JOHN. *Rudiments of Music*. Norton, 1962. 239 p. \$4.95.

A well-written book which combines piano instruction in melody and chord playing with the presentation of the basic facts of notation and terminology, and brief sketches of the development of musical materials. These studies are based on the investigation of simple songs (e.g., "Three Blind Mice"). The result is a mixture of Teacher's manual, self-instructor, and textbook. Mr. Castellini's classroom tested procedures can be recommended if your classroom situation resembles his.

COWELL, HENRY. *American Composers on American Music*. Ungar, 1962. 226 p. \$4.75.

A reprint of a book that, though it first appeared in 1933, retains its interest and vitality. It remains an important source book of critical essays for the layman and the musician and by those who know best—the composers themselves—on the attitudes, aspirations, and ideas that were significant in shaping the American musical scene.

LOWINSKY, EDWARD. *Tonality and Atonality in the Sixteenth Century Music*. Univ. of California Press, 1962. 99 p.

In this book, a distinguished scholar fills in another detail in our picture of the development of our tonal materials. A work of importance for the serious students of music history and theory.

WERDER, R. H. *Procedures and Techniques of Music Teaching*. Catholic Univ. of America, 1962. 107 p. \$1.50.

Report of a workshop conducted at the Catholic University of America. Although much is designed for Catholic Parish School usage, very little is exclusive. One chapter of philosophical concern, "Music: A Value in Christian Life" by Rev. T. J. Reardon.

Reference

AYERS, ARCHIE R. and RUSSELL, JOHN H. *Organization and Administration of Institutions of Higher Learning: Internal Structure*. Government Printing Office, 1962. 123 p. \$45.

The authors, specialists on College and University Organization, Division of Higher Education, present a modern administrative design, with line-staff chart, giving the functions and duties of chief administrative officers, based on a comprehensive analysis of the current organizations of 608 junior, senior colleges, and universities as to business management, staffing, assignments, student services, development and other aspects.

GAUNT, WILLIAM. *Everyman's Dictionary of Pictorial Art*, Vol. I & II. Dutton, 1962. \$6.50 ea.

In this two-volume set not only are there biographies of artists and descriptions of famous paintings, but also entries for periods and schools of painting, style, and theory, technical terms, art forms, and museums. The illustrations are clear. These volumes will be a useful source for ready reference information.

GIOAN, PIERRE. *Dictionnaire Usuel Quillet Flammarion*. Dutton, 1962. 1457 p.

The clear definitions and many illustrations make this dictionary very useful. A special feature is an excellent selection on grammar, listed in its alphabetical place, giving information on the parts of speech and their use and presenting the tables of verb conjugation.

WOELLNER, ELIZABETH H. and WOOD, M. AURILLA. *Requirements for Certification*. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1962. 143 p.

This annual volume continues to keep up to date the requirements for certification—a valuable and necessary service.

Science and Mathematics

CONKLIN, GLADYS. *We like Bugs*. Holiday House, 1962. unpag. \$2.95.

Colorfully illustrated nature book for the beginning reader. Helpful because it recalls the vivid experiences of a field study. Children will enjoy this volume.

CROME, A. *Hover Craft*. Obolensky, 1962. 72 p. \$2.95.

A well illustrated and extremely informative book which tells the complete history

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Unusual and interesting helpful suggestions for observing and experimenting with plants and seeds. Illustrations tell action stories along with the text. Recommended informal reading for intermediates.

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SULLIVAN, NAVIN. *Pioneer Germ Fighters*. Atheneum, 1962. 164 p. \$3.75.

Leeuwenhoek, Jenner, Koch, Pasteur, Beijerinck, Ehrlich, Fleming, Goodpasture, Stonley, Enders and Salk have meant much to humanity. This worthwhile book relates the story of their discoveries to children, grades six through nine.

VERRALL, CHARLES SPAIN. *Jets*. Prentice Hall, 1962. 70 p. \$2.95.

Good balance between scientific, practical experience, and the utilization of a child's background are found in this illustrated book for the intermediate.

Social Science

BLAKE, NELSON. *Road to Reno*. Macmillan, 1962. 269 p. \$5.00.

This is a fascinating account of divorce beginning with its historical background in the New Testament and Roman Catholic dogma. The author describes our chaotic divorce patterns from New York State's "make believe" world at one extreme to the frankly mercenary practices of Nevada with its six weeks residence requirements at the other.

BLOCH, HERBERT. *Crime in America*. Phil. Lib., 1961. 355 p. \$6.00.

A book of reading covering a wide spotty spectrum of areas of interest to criminologists. Some usual penological problems are covered, plus some specialized topics as, offenders in the military service, homicide on the highway, and child murders. Problems concerning the M'Naghten Rule are explored at length. Psychographology in criminal investigation has little interest in this country. The contributions are of uneven merits.

BLOCH, HERBERT and GEIS, GILBERT. *Man, Crime, and Society*. Random House, 1962. 642 p.

This text sociologically views crime from a naturalistic point of view, that is, as a method of adaptation to the social order. Majors on its history, theoretical problems, and contains an excellent treatment of behavior systems such as professional crime, organized crime, and white collar crime. Punishment and treatment are briefly considered. Annotated bibliographies on each chapter.

CARTER, WILMOTH A. *The Urban Negro in the South*. Vantage Press, 1962. 272 p. \$4.00.

An interesting and from every indication a thoroughly sound study of Negro residents in a Southern city. The author is a competent and trained sociologist. Raleigh, North Carolina, is the city in view.

COLE, WILLIAM E. *Introductory Sociology*. McKay, 1962. 369 p. \$7.00.

This rather brief introductory text grows out of the author's experience in teaching beginning sociology. It considers various

definitions of sociology, indicates its historical roots in the social sciences and its relationship to them. Its four major sections include 1. the development of society, 2. its structure, 3. functioning, 4. some of its products. Each chapter contains questions for further study and well-chosen, briefly annotated bibliographies. There is extensive utilization of empirical research, and it is well documented. This book is a solid approach to the principle sociological concepts, and clearly indicates their significance for sociological study.

DARDEN, ROBERT F. *Reconstruction Bonds and Twentieth-Century Politics*. Duke Univ. Press, 1962. 247 p. \$6.00.

This book fills a spot in reconstruction history which has long needed attention. The research is first rate and the writing is good.

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An entertaining, sketchy, sympathetic and somewhat sentimental series of descriptions of a half-dozen well-known married couples. They are described as representing a high degree of maturity and altruism in their marriages, and significantly in their chosen vocations.

FRANKLIN, JOHN HOPE. *Reconstruction after the Civil War*. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1962. 258 p.

Another excellent volume in the "Chicago History of American Civilization Series." The author is a mature scholar who writes extremely well, and the pages of "suggested reading" lend additional value to the book.

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For those with an interest in the antebellum South, this little book of folktales, ghost stories, romantic stories, and recipes should prove fascinating. For nearly a hundred years prior the Civil War this little island was the center of a remarkably wealthy leisure class who pursued their pleasures and the arts avidly.

HAMILTON, EDWARD P. *The French and Indian Wars*. Doubleday, 1962. 318 p. \$5.95.

A superior, popularly written volume of American History; it is a part of the series "Mainstream of America." The author is an authority on this period of our history.

JOHNSTON, SAVITZ, WOLFGANG. *The Sociology of Punishment and Correction*. Wiley, 1962. 349 p.

An excellent collection of some of the best current sociological research in criminology and penology. There is a nice balance between theoretical discussions and descriptive studies. Brief introductions precede the five sections covering the administration of justice, the prison community, treatment, prediction and prevention. Can be used either as a text or supplementary book of readings with another text.

MARQUAND, LEO. *The Peoples and Politics of South Africa*. Oxford, 1962. 284 p. \$2.25.

For the learned neophyte this is a most useful and comprehensive work in South Africa. It explains many of the educational problems which beset the Government of the Republic, and touches in an unemotional manner on the practical difficulties of educating in an "apartheid vacuum." This volume is readable, concise and most useful as a survey work to keep close at hand.

WEBER, MAX. *Basic Concepts in Sociology*. Phil. Lib., 1962. 123 p. \$3.75.

This little volume presents rather clearly a distillation of the thought of one of our greatest sociological pioneers on many central sociological concepts such as, the meaning of social conduct, "understanding," social relations, struggle, ideal types, authority and power.

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Editorial . . .

The Good Dissertations Live Longer

The status of the doctoral thesis is in need of a review. It is one of the student's most disciplinary achievements. It probes deeply (or should) into his adequacy in three phases of work. Having chosen a subject (and perhaps that's a fourth phase) he must perform the research needed to reveal the facts, the causes and effects, the various relationships involved. Then he must resolve these parts, sometimes diverse in nature, into a unity, fortified and protected by its completeness. And finally, all done in the best of prose, and the slick pedantry of the day isn't that. The worth of a thesis can be multiplied by a clear and understanding use of the English language, and by resourcefulness in using it.

Sometimes a thesis is weakened by a lack of the vitaminal power of the imagination. Of course the imagination, out of control, can destroy any writing, but under discipline it can add both charm and power.

The special committee can by sympathetic encouragement, and at times by restraint, add greatly to the worth of the document. But the major professor is first and foremost the judge trying the case.

There's a special reason for the document to be a good one. It is in more than half the instances the only thing of importance the student will ever write. His productivity is too likely to end with it. The situation will not be satisfied with anything short of his best even if that involves delay.

The creation of a doctoral thesis requires a major effort. It is not a glorified term paper. It must be composed out of sense, drudgery, and a holding of the main issues in full view, and time must be avail-

able to edit, to rearrange, and to assess the values claimed. One doesn't arrive at his best by taking short cuts.

George Poret, who finished his doctoral work in 1929, made a pungent statement to a fellow student who had said that all he lacked then was his dissertation. George puckered his Creole features into a quizzical expression. "You said that wrong. You should say it this way, 'All I have got off are my courses.' "

Where's Tom Gone?

WILSON KRESGE

**Department of Music, Roosevelt High School
Long Island, New York**

"Tom! What's gone with that boy, I wonder?"¹ He's probably at a Little League game, or a school sport or club, or at a Boy Scout meeting, or at a special lesson in music, or dancing, or language, or at the "Y", or at the 4-H Club, or the Youth Center, or the organized recreation program at the park, or some such place.

When Tom was originally summoned a hundred years ago, his Aunt Polly would have had no idea where he was. She could have guessed that he was trying to avoid work and adult restrictions, but he might have been any place his wandering mind took him—Sherwood Forest, a pirate ship, a river boat's wheelhouse, or practicing witchcraft in a cemetery.

Mark Twain's Tom Sawyer was perhaps typical of his time. He may have been more typical than any other real boy for he was, at least in part, a figment of a vibrant imagination. However, William Allen White substantiates Tom's existence when he says, "Boys were mostly cut loose and ran free like unlariated stock."² That was Tom. Free. The only real ties he felt were to his Aunt Polly and he stretched them whenever possible.

Tom's world was limited in size to the area around his town, but he knew his world well. He knew everyone in town and had them all pegged in order of importance. He, himself, was a leader among his peers because he could beat them in a fight. Huck Finn and Joe Harper were his only equals. They were the ones who were willing to go along on Tom's escapades. Adults could be generally judged one way or another. There were those like Judge Thatcher who because of their education and position were so far above the common man that they automatically were respected. The Judge after all "was from Constantinople which was twelve miles away—so he had travelled and seen the

¹ Mark Twain, *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1906), p. 15.

² William Allen White, *Boys Then and Now* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1926), p. 8.

world.”³ There were others who were important because of their colorful lives. River boatmen, town drunks (like Muff Potter, who occasionally befriended the boys), thieves, pirates and the like almost always appealed to the masculine instincts of the boys. Famous characters, in literature and history also had great appeal. The minister and school-teacher had little real importance. Truly, the schoolmaster’s switch commanded more respect than he did. In order to avoid it, Tom played hookey as much as possible and “Monday morning found Tom miserable. Monday morning always found him so—because it began another week’s slow suffering in school.”⁴ Church was all right in that it was rather social and gave Tom a chance to see Becky Thatcher, but it took real control to sit through the very dull sermons. Sunday School was not much different. Memorization of Bible verses was the order of the day. If you memorized two thousand, you won a Bible. “It is possible that Tom’s mental stomach had never really hungered for one of those prizes, but unquestionably his entire being had for many a day longed for the glory and eclat that went with it.”⁵

Most of the people in the community had little time or energy for boys of Tom’s age, so for Tom these townfolk were unimportant. Perhaps the most important factor in a boy’s life was his family and often within the family “his mother was the one civilizing *influence*.”⁶ Tom’s Aunt Polly punished, pushed, pulled, provoked and pampered him to keep him from regressing to tribal savagery. What morals and scruples he had, he kept in order to please his every-suffering Aunt Polly. Tom gained his knowledge of people by living with them. He learned their mores from observing them. He learned about his physical surroundings by exploring them. He was forced to learn just enough reading, writing and arithmetic in school to prepare him for adulthood. Although he appeared dull in school, Tom was in truth fairly bright. He rebelled against memorizing verses and facts, but he could memorize whole sections of *Robin Hood* when he needed them for his games. Tom was a sharp trader and an astute judge of human nature. Experience was his teacher. The whole of his world was his school and

³ Mark Twain, *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1906), p. 53.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 66.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 50.

⁶ White, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

he organized the curriculum himself. Tom would grow up suited for his world and probably never move from it.

After World War I, certain changes began taking place in the young lives of Tom's male descendents. Their world was growing. Everything was changing and changing ever more rapidly. Little towns became big towns and you could no longer know everything and everyone in your town. Adults didn't have to work as long and hard as they used to. Some of them spent their extra time and energy working with boys in the Scouts, the "Y" and similar groups. The schools had grown and hired better teachers who had a better understanding of children than Tom's schoolmaster. Of course, there were in the 1920's many out of the way towns and many rural areas where the Tom's of that time might grow up as that earlier Tom had seventy years before.

William Allen White looked at the boys in Emporia, Kansas in 1926 through eyes that had been young at the same time as the original Tom's. White concluded that the youngster of 1926 "knows more than any other boy in the world, and on the whole is a better boy than any of his grandfathers were back to the Garden of Eden."⁷ Although the boys of 1926 didn't know as much about horses and stock as their parents, "Their contact with motor cars and radios gives them such a schooling in the practical aspects of mechanical engineering as no other generation of boys ever carried in their heads before."⁸

One fears that White's eyeglasses had a heavy pink film over them when he looked at the 1926 Tom and called him "a young giant"⁹ and says, "He toys with the beautiful mystery we call electricity. He makes magic with static out of the ether. He and his kind are learning the white magic of physics as their savage forebearers of the jungle played with charms and amulets, signs and portents. The new boys are all medicine men of the new voodooos."¹⁰

Better schools (50c of every tax dollar went to them) and better youth serving agencies built this Tom of the twenties, but he was growing and learning in the very earliest stages of an era that would change completely the social and economic face of America. As Cremin and

⁷ William Allen White, *Boys Then and Now* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1926), p. 40.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 41.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 43.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 41.

Butts put it, "America after World War I was like a strong adolescent boy on the verge of maturity."¹¹

Many boys of the twenties grew up in towns already caught up in change, as White describes. Perhaps many more grew up in areas still waiting quietly to be pulled into the maelstrom of change. The country was changing from agrarianism to industrialism. Vast numbers of people were beginning to move to cities. Compulsory attendance laws were nationwide by 1918.¹² Consequently boys of the twenties spent more time in educational pursuits. As adults they would work less and have more than their fathers. With the exception of the period during the depression, they would be economically well off.

Today Tom is a far different boy leading a far different life. We know a great deal more about him, for we have studied him under a microscope. He can be described statistically. His future is constantly being studied, although no one is quite sure whether he has one. His every need is met. There are adults willing to guide his every move. He is well fed and healthy. He is driven to school and home again. He is driven to the Y.M.C.A. so he can exercise and be healthier. The wonders of the world are placed before him on T.V. He views the violence second-hand that the frontier Tom of one hundred years ago participated in. He blithely knows numbers such as millions and billions which neither he nor his parent understand. His main concerns are achievement and acceptance by others.¹³ He is thinking ahead to decisions he will have to make about what courses to take in high school, about going to college and even about marriage.¹³

According to a study made for the Boy Scouts of America by the University of Michigan, if our present-day Tom were one of a group of twenty boys:

- 20 watch television
- 20 go to school
- 19 play baseball
- 18 go swimming
- 17 have little to say about when they go to bed

¹¹ R. Freeman Butts and Lawrence A. Cremin, *A History of Education in American Culture* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1953), p. 461.

¹² Butts and Cremin, *op. cit.*, p. 415.

¹³ *A Study of Boys Becoming Adolescents*, A Report Prepared by the University of Michigan. (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1960), p. 199.

- 16 play football
- 15 would like to be neither oldest nor youngest in the club
- 14 receive some form of physical punishment
- 13 want to be in a professional occupation
- 13 spend less than one hour a day on homework
- 12 would like sports and games in the program of a new club
- 11 attend dances
- 11 have some sort of job
- 10 say they feel happy because some adult likes them as often at school as at home
- 9 belong to some sort of athletic team
- 9 feel that a new club should probably have girl members
- 8 belong to no organization
- 7 admire their fathers more than anyone else
- 6 say they would like to know, more often at home than at school, what things they should not do
- 5 belong to no club or athletic team
- 4 belong to two or more organizations
- 3 have no "best friend"
- 2 worry about feeling guilty
- 2 want to be scientists
- 1 feels he receives no love from his mother¹⁴

Adults today are more interested in children than ever before. In 1926 White said, "The test of a civilization is its treatment of youth."¹⁵ If this be true, our civilization is well-advanced. We have organized vast resources to aid and abet his improvement. We have available for our youth all the information he needs to prepare for a vocation. He can become a specialist in any of a prodigious number of fields of endeavor. He is trained in such abstract things as "how to get along," "how to work with others," "how to play on the team." The object is that he will be well-rounded, so he can roll easily with everyone else towards the future. Assuredly, the Tom of today is being trained to live in the world as it probably will be.

Compared to Mark Twain's *Tom Sawyer*, today's youth has lost much of his freedom, for his activities are to a large extent controlled

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 204.

¹⁵ White, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

by adults. He doesn't have as much time for purposeless play, for there is so much more to be learned. There is no reason for him to day-dream about new worlds to be conquered, for there are no new worlds that a man or boy can conquer all alone.

One hopes that today's Tom gets a little pleasure out of life and that in rolling towards the future, he will occasionally stop to make sure of where he is going and will try to steer himself and his companions in the most promising direction. In fact, it might be well if some boys could be left with a few sharp edges, so that they will be able to cut into the cancer of social evils and to cleave complacency where it exits. The time of the rugged individualist (and Tom Sawyer was that) has passed. The day of the well-organized team effort is here. Yet, no team and no country can exist without aim. To give direction to our progress, we must have individuals with the courage of their convictions to fight against the whole team if necessary when they feel the course is wrong. A team made up of individuals capable of independent, creative thinking can possibly succeed better than a team of complacent, agreeable, well-rounded balls of floss candy clinging to a cone of convention. For the good of our society, we must hope that today's crop of young men will produce its share of morally conscious individualists with old Tom's willingness to explore the unknown.

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Confederate School Geographies, I: Marinda Branson Moore's Dixie Geography*

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At the secession of the Southern states in the early months of 1861, the production of textbooks for the Confederacy's schools was both a practical and a patriotic necessity. Until civil war came, Southern schools were dependent for textbooks on the output of Northern publishers. Hostilities made further trade impossible. Available textbooks, although in short supply, suffered from a serious defect; they were, in Southern eyes, blighted by Yankee biases and inaccuracies. During the course of the conflict, Southerners responded to pleas for "home edited and printed school books." Primers, spellers, readers, arithmetics, English grammars, foreign language books, and geographies were produced. Some were original works; others were "Southern" versions of popular pre-war books by Northern authors. A few titles were imported from England.

Of the three geographies credited as Confederate imprints, Marinda Branson Moore's volume merits special attention over the others¹ as being truly a Dixie geography for little "Southrons." The 48-page volume was first issued in 1863 under the title, *The Geographical Reader for the Dixie Children*. It was advertised as "the first Geography published in the Confederate States." The following year, a second edition² of this book was published with two alterations. The title was changed to *Primary Geography*, and the book's catecheti-

*For his helpfulness, appreciation is expressed to William S. Powell, librarian of the North Carolina Collection, University of North Carolina.

¹ An adapted version of Mitchell's *Intermediate Geography* was John H. Rice's *A System of Modern Geography* (1862). K. J. Stewart's *A Geography for Beginners* (1864) was probably printed in England and imported into the Confederacy. These books will be described in a subsequent paper.

² Lists of Confederate imprints do not make this distinction of editions between these two titles. That *Primary Geography* was clearly thought of as a second edition of the *Geographical Reader* is revealed by the Branson & Farrar advertisement on the back cover of *Primary Geography*: "Second Edition, by Mrs. M. B. Moore, just issued. . . ."

cal second part was extended. Otherwise, the editions were identical. Ten thousand copies of both editions were published by the Raleigh, North Carolina, house of Branson, Farrar and Co. The volumes were the same size, seven inches by eight inches. In 1863, the book sold for \$2.00; the advertised price of the second edition rose to \$3.00.

Mrs. Marinda Branson Moore was a resident of Madison, (Rockingham County) North Carolina.³ She was deeply religious. Well educated for a North Carolina woman of the period, Mrs. Moore graduated in 1854 from the Greensboro (N.C.) Female College. She was principal of a female seminary for several years, and later conducted a school for girls in her own home. Mrs. Moore died in 1864 at the age of 35.

While not the only woman who authored schoolbooks during the Civil War, Mrs. Moore certainly was the most versatile and productive. In a year's time, she completed manuscripts for a primer, reader, speller, and a geography and its revision. In February, 1862, she sent the manuscript of her primer to Calvin H. Wiley, North Carolina's Superintendent of Common Schools, with the hopes that he would suggest it for publication.⁴ In her letter of transmittal,⁵ she commented about other needed textbooks and asked for Wiley's advice:

The only thing which incited me to ever try to make a book, was the fact that very few text books for small children were within the range of their comprehension. This is more specially true of Primmers, Readers; and Primary Geographies.

During my career as a teacher, I have sometimes been vain enough to imagine, a woman could better simplify and let down knowledge to the reach of infant minds, and even larger children; than learned men who have less to do with the juvenile tribe. This leads me to enquire if anybody South is preparing a primary Geography. Also; if such a work is much needed?

No record exists of Wiley's reply, but he may have encouraged her to prepare a geography. That such a work was needed by Southern

³ *Branson Magazine of Genealogies*, I (June, 1898), 8-10; Harold Cay, *The Prices and the Moores* (New York: International Press, 1944), 88.

⁴ Wiley was probably of assistance in getting Mrs. Moore's primer, the *Dixie Primer for the Little Folks*, published in 1862 by the North Carolina Institution for the Deaf, the Dumb, and the Blind, Raleigh. Subsequent editions of the primer and all her other books were published by her brother Levi's firm, Branson, Farrar and Company.

⁵ Letter from Marinda Branson Moore to Calvin H. Wiley, February 11, 1862. Calvin H. Wiley Papers, Southern Historical Collection, University of North Carolina Library, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. Hereinafter cited Wiley Mss., SHC.

teachers is evident from the expression of another North Carolina teacher. Delin W. Jones, living near Warsaw, hoped that "some kind, intelligent person would sit down and simplify the language of some of our Geographies and Arithmetics, and c."⁶ Mrs. Moore worked on her geography book and probably by the late spring or summer of 1863, her *Geographical Reader* was published.

As forecast in her letter to Superintendent Wiley, Mrs. Moore's purpose for writing her geography was simplification of the subject for children. In the Preface, she wrote:

The author of this little work, having found most of the juvenile books too complex for young minds, has for some time intended making an effort to simplify the science of Geography. If she shall succeed in bringing this beautiful and useful study within the grasp of the little folks, and making it both interesting and pleasant, her purpose will be fully accomplished.

In the "Note to Teachers" which precedes the text, Mrs. Moore explained that the first part of the book should be used as a reader. The catechetical second part "is to be studied as usual." Through this procedure, the pupil would become "familiar with geographical terms before he begins to study Geography." "Studying" geography, thus, was seen as learning the correct responses to a set of catechetical questions. Mrs. Moore recommended that pupils "read over and over again the first part, and then the second will be simply a review." That geography was frequently taught emphasizing the memoriter of the catechism is evident from Mrs. Moore's comment:

As a pupil, the author well remembers her difficulties at this point; and as a teacher, she has been led to enquire, "Is there no easier path for the tender feet of the little ones?"

Part I of both editions is identical and is divided into 26 lessons. The catechetical Part II differs between the editions. The *Geographic Reader* has a ten lesson review. The first nine review lessons roughly parallel the corresponding chapters in Part I. Lesson X, however, asks questions about government, a topic not included in the Part I lessons. In the second edition, *Primary Geography*, 18 review lessons were added to the ten included in the first edition. Each of the Part I lessons

⁶ Letter from Delin W. Jones to Calvin H. Wiley, March 16, 1863. Wiley Mss., SHC.

then had a review. Lessons XXVII and XXVIII presented new materials on miscellaneous topics and about commerce.

Mrs. Moore included six maps in her book. She had written to Wiley, "I cannot brook the idea of a child's book with out pictures." Yet, her book's maps, presented in six double-page layouts, seems to have the function of "decoration" rather than illustration of the textual passages. Only maps of certain U.S. and C. S. A. states were included. No map was placed near the associated text. For example, the map of Virginia and Maryland is presented with the discussion of latitude and climatic zones; the map showing Indiana, Ohio, and Kentucky is inserted with text about South America. Almost unexplainable is the inclusion of maps of the loyal Union states of Delaware, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois! Of the eleven Confederate states, only the map of Texas is excluded. Maps of Maryland, Missouri, and Kentucky, states having considerable sympathy for the Confederacy, were included. A possible explanation of the inclusion of these particular maps is that the printing plates for these maps were the only ones available. Shown on the maps are major rivers, railroad lines, and names of some towns. Map borders, in some extent copies, are colored, apparently with water color paints applied by the publishers. Copies of both editions that have been examined exhibit the same colors used for the maps but color schemes vary between books of the same edition and between editions.

Consistent with her purpose, Mrs. Moore employed a direct, conversational style. Written in the first person, her words seemed to address the reader personally. Not infrequently, she admonished her readers. In the book's opening sentences, Mrs. Moore said, "I wish you to pay good attention, and if I use a word you do not understand, you must ask your teacher to explain it to you." Later, after comparing the "justness" of Southern leaders to the "wickedness" of Northern leaders, she wrote, "Then remember, little boys, when you are men, never vote for a bad man to govern the country."

The first nine lessons of the book are devoted to some basic geographical concepts. Included is discussion of the nature of geography, seasons, land, water, hemisphere, points of the compass, latitude and longitude, zone and canals and railroads. Even in these first lessons, the descriptive accounts are usually not free of expressions of "South-

ern" opinionatedness. References to God, as well, are not uncommon, and indicate Mrs. Moore's basic value commitment. For example, writing about canals and railroads, Mrs. Moore declared:

Canals, railroads and bridges and all things that men make, are called the works of art. Mountains, hills, rivers, oceans, seas, &c., are called the works of nature; because God made them. The works of nature far surpass the works of art; which shows how much wiser God is, than the wisest men.

Mrs. Moore's treatment of "zones" is characterized by a definite climatic determinism. The white majority, inhabiting the "Temperate Zone," were people of "common stature" who had "milder dispositions than those of a hotter climate." Further discussing people living in the temperate zone, Mrs. Moore concluded with a moral injunction to her readers:

They are generally industrious and intelligent. I mean by this they have good schools, and all who labor can get a good education. But sad to say, there are some lazy people in every zone, and some idle children in every school. I hope my little readers will not be idle. (p. 9)⁷

As might be expected, Mrs. Moore did not write the sections on "races" without interpretation. The Caucasian race was epitomized as a civilized people "and is far above all the others." Caucasians were said to have schools, churches, "wise and good men for rulers, and a regular form of government." To cap off her concept of "civilization," Mrs. Moore added that "women are treated with respect and tenderness, and in many cases their wish is law among their male friends." The inclusiveness of this concept, interestingly, is unchallenged in subsequent lessons dealing with secession and the "wickedness" of Abolitionists and their "Abraham."

Mongolians, Mrs. Moore wrote, "are of a yellow color . . . a quiet, plodding race, but when educated are sensible and shrewd." She indicated that these people "have books and a regular form of government." Even with these apparently good qualities, however, Mongolians were depicted as heathens. Concerning their lack of knowledge of the Christian religion, Mrs. Moore commented "yet they pray to those idols much oftener than we christians [sic] do to our Savior." (p. 10).

⁷ Page references given apply to both editions of Mrs. Moore's book except where specifically noted.

Malayans and American Indians were pictured as “very fierce and will die rather than be made slaves,” “cunning and treacherous,” and “cannibals.” American Indians were said to have been “cruel, and warlike” when the European explorers first came to North America.

Mrs. Moore devoted a major portion of the section on races to Negroes. She wrote, “They are slothful and vicious, but possess little cunning.” (p. 10) To justify the position of servitude held by Negroes, Mrs. Moore based her reasoning on her Biblical understanding. She explained that the Negro descended from Ham who was cursed for failing to treat his father respectfully. This interpretation was elaborated into a moral lesson for children to obey their parents.

The book’s Southern biases, heavy religiosity and, indeed, its inaccuracies of facts are particularly blatant in the lesson dealing with “The United States” and the “Southern Confederacy.” The United States was presented as “once the most prosperous country in the world . . . and for many years (its citizens) were prosperous and happy.” Mrs. Moore’s treatment of the history of slavery in the New World clearly portrays Northerners as the villains. Describing the secession of the Southern states, she wrote:

“This (the secession of the Southern states) so enraged President Lincoln that he declared war, and has exhausted nearly all the strength of the nation, in a vain attempt to whip the South back into the Union. Thousands of lives have been lost, and the earth has been drenched with blood; but still Abraham is unable to conquer the ‘Rebels’ as he calls the South. The South only asked to be let alone, and to divide the public property equally.” (pp. 13-14)

Mrs. Moore described the people of the United States as “ingenious, and enterprising, and are noted for their tact in ‘driving a bargain’.” She tempered this apparently forthright statement by adding that they “are refined, and intelligent on all subjects but that of negro slavery, on this they are mad.” Interestingly, she closed this section with the note that the United States “is very interesting . . . to travelers.”

States of the Southern Confederacy were depicted as agrarian but having many large cities and good harbors. The lack of more commerce was cited as the reason that southern cities grew slowly. The cause of an inhibited commerce was presented succinctly in the catechism:

Q: What is the present drawback to our trade?

A: An unlawful Blockade by the miserable and hellish Yankee Nation. (2nd ed., p. 47)⁸

Mrs. Moore did not dwell on the shortcomings of the Confederacy; however, she affirmed her optimism in the South and the favorable outcome of the war.

This is a great country! The Yankees thought to starve us out when they sent their ships to guard our seaport towns. But we have learned to make many things; to do without many others; and above all to trust in the smiles of the God of battles. . . . We were considered an indolent, weak people but our enemies have found us strong, because we had justice on our side. (p. 14)

Although she admitted that the Confederacy was “at present a sad country,” Mrs. Moore noted that many of the Confederacy’s leaders were religious men and that many of its people were “praying people.” With piety thus on her side, Mrs. Moore could conclude that “we may hope that our cause will prosper.”

A few other countries were described. Nations of Europe, Asia, and Africa were ignored. Mexico, Guatemala, and several South American countries received brief treatment. For example, Ecuador was described as a beautiful, pleasant place of perpetual springtime, but it had obvious faults.

If you should go there to dine, you would see ants running all over the table, and sometimes when a tart was cut, you would find nothing but ants inside. In fact, insects are so plenty that the people can scarcely live for them. Near the rivers there are large serpents, alligators, caymans, &c., which annoy the people very much. (p. 16)

Peruvians were described as “more civil, and lived more like white people, than any other tribe.” Mrs. Moore wrote about Paraguay that even “the beggar begs on horseback.” Beautiful Brazil was blessed with a variety of resources, but its “inhabitants are ignorant. . . . The people are too indolent to make good farmers.” Even with these limitations, however, Brazil’s future was bright and the reason for optimism obvious:

⁸ In a post-war review of *Primary Geography*, A. H. Guernsey suggested that this sentence may have been inserted by someone other than Mrs. Moore because of its “variance with the pious tone which runs through most of the work. . . .” A. H. Guernsey, “A Dixian Geography,” *Harper’s Magazine* (June, 1866), 112. On the other hand, Mr. Guernsey probably underestimated the intensity of Mrs. Moore’s feelings on this point.

“ . . . in a few years this will become one of the finest farming countries in the world. Several missionaries have gone there to preach to the people.”

Synoptic accounts treat the several Confederate states in the last thirteen lessons. Interestingly, Mrs. Moore devoted lessons to Missouri and Kentucky, two states that did not secede from the Union. These lessons usually include comments about each state's inhabitants, agricultural products, principal cities, and its connection with the war. The descriptions are generally accurate, although their incompleteness must have been misleading, even in 1863.

The book suggests that people fond of “good beef, milk, butter, and cheese” settled in Western Virginia. In the hilly middle sections and level eastern part of Virginia, the good soil made possible large plantations and good crops. “The higher class” of Virginians, according to Mrs. Moore, had the reputation for “hospitality and high living. Some of these claim to be descendants of Pocahontas, which they consider a great honor.” And presumably, a claim Mrs. Moore failed to appreciate. Norfolk, presented as “one of the first harbors in the world,” was said to have been “spoiled” by the enemy. Richmond's fame as the seat of Confederate government, was dimmed by Mrs. Moore's statement, “There is said to be much wickedness in the city.” Virginia was credited by Mrs. Moore as having suffered “almost as much as any” state in the course of the “war for independence.”

North Carolina, the author's home state, is treated in more detail than most of the states. A number of crops were mentioned as growing in the good soil of the state. Admitted was that about half of the state's soil was “so thin that those who live on it are very poor.” This candor was tempered by the claim that the eastern swamp lands of the state “are very fertile.” The “slow but sure” North Carolinians were cited for their bravery in the war. But all sons of the Old North State did not do their duty, for Mrs. Moore wrote:

While some few cowards refused to fight for their country, it is a notable fact that nearly all of them, were of the ignorant class, and many of them did not know what patriotism was. We should feel as much pity for them as contempt, because they had not been properly taught. (p. 20)

Excusing cowardly behavior because of a lack of education reveals the depth of Mrs. Moore's convictions about education. She noted that

North Carolina neglected schools until only a few years before the war, but that much progress had been made in a short time. She attested to the state's good intentions and admonished her readers in the following passage:

“Good people are now building up schools to educate the children of poor soldiers who are killed in this war. Nearly every child can get an education here if he will be industrious. Who will be ignorant? (p. 20)

An element in all the accounts of the states was an appraisal of their efforts and activities in the war. Mrs. Moore explained South Carolina's decision to secede first among the Southern states.

The war would have come, sooner or later. God usually punishes wicked nations by war. I mean by this that when people become wicked, He gives them over to a hardness of heart to work out their own punishment and sometimes destruction. How much better for all to be good. (p. 20)

Indicating that South Carolinians were known for their “chivalry,” Mrs. Moore pointed out that “when any one imposes upon them their motto is to fight.” Mississippi, according to Mrs. Moore, “has nobly done her part in the great struggle.” While Texas was said to have suffered little from the war, Arkansas was pictured as having been sorely troubled.

The enemy have ravaged nearly the whole of it, and the wrongs of the people are heart-rendering. But there is a God of vengeance and ere long these sufferers will be avenged. (p. 25)

Mississippi, too, had been “devastated” but “. . . the brave spirits there will yet conquer, and this will be one of the finest States in the Confederacy.” The book's first part was concluded with Mrs. Moore's appeal for peace.

Many pure spirits are praying for peace, and if we all humble ourselves as we should, we shall soon be blessed with the glorious news Peace! Peace!! Peace!!! O who will not appreciate Peace when it comes? (p. 29)

The institution of slavery is mentioned a number of times in the book. Invariably, it is justified as an honorable position. Mrs. Moore, however, was not sightless to its abuses. Describing the Confederacy, Mrs. Moore wrote:

Much of the field work is done by slaves. They are generally well used and often have as much pocket money as their mistresses. They are contented and happy, and many of them are christians. The sin of the

South lies not in holding slaves, but they are sometimes mistreated. Let all the little boys and girls remember that slaves are human, and that God will hold them to account for treating them with injustice. (p. 14)

Slavery in Virginia was pictured in a benevolent light.

There are many planters who own large numbers of slaves. These are generally well treated, and are as happy a people as any under the sun. If they are sick *master* sends for the doctor; if the crop is short, they are sure of enough to save life; if they are growing old, they know they will be provided for; and in time of war, they generally remain quietly at home, while the *master* goes and spills his blood for his country. (p. 19)

Slavery in South Carolina received a less favorable report. Mrs. Moore indicated that slaves there “are hardly so well treated as in North Carolina and Virginia; but they have the gospel preached to them, and are generally contented and happy.” (p. 20-21) Mrs. Moore was bitter as she described Union troops telling slaves that they were free and forming them into regiments “to fight against their masters. But the negro [sic] is too cowardly for a soldier, and so he is but little service to his Northern friends.” (p. 21)

One hundred years after this school book was published, it remains considerably more than a curiosity. It is a tangible example of the efforts made by a people during civil war, not only to perpetuate the education of the young, but to shape that education in important ways, however distorted those purposes may seem to contemporary readers. Recorded here are expressions of characteristic, if not dominant, Confederate values, feelings, and attitudes toward facts. To caricature this book would be easy, but unjust. To know this little book is to confront and share a portion of our nation’s common shame and tragedy.

Work Simplification: One Answer to the College Admissions Dilemma

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Newspapers, magazines, and other communication media are having a field day as a result of the college crisis. Articles pour forth from the presses almost daily concerning some aspect of the troubles which currently beset college officials. Both cub and experienced writers, college officials, and leaders from other walks of life vie with one another in their efforts to portray graphically the serious plight facing higher education. In one way or another most of the publicity being devoted to college problems calls attention to a growing shortage of the three "f's," *facilities*, *finance*, and *faculties* and an over-abundance of students. Hence we have a situation which may be similar to the thought conveyed in the nursery rhyme of the old woman in the shoe who had so many children she didn't know what to do.

Without doubt the expanding enrollments, sometimes referred to as the population explosion beginning in the 40's and continuing almost unabated, have resulted in serious problems at every educational level, including higher education. In fact, some aspects of the college crisis just reaching the acute stage in the 60's were problems faced constantly by many public school educators during the past two decades. Reference is made here to the apparent excess of students in relation to adequate facilities for their care. In the case of public schools, student increases have been estimated through birth rate statistics and later correctly counted when they registered for school. Colleges can not rely completely upon such data when planning expansion programs.

A great deal of needless confusion and uncertainty exists in the area of college admissions today. It is not nearly as simple to determine the actual number of students to be taught in higher education in general and at any one college in particular as it is in the public schools. This fact has undoubtedly given rise to many of the headaches

now confronting us in higher education. While admission procedures must necessarily be much more involved at the college level, steps should be immediately taken to remove any practices which hinder rather than assist in the prompt and orderly processing of student applications to colleges.

This will mean a facing up to some of the undesirable features of present-day admission practices and a willingness to correct them. At the risk of sounding erudite an effective solution to the problem cannot be reached by any one college acting independently or merely the colleges working together. A pre-requisite for any effective solution to the college crisis as it relates to the handling and disposition of student applications will involve both high school and college officials. High schools and colleges work together today in many ways and lines of communication are already open but it does not appear that a concerted effort in this particular area has been made to bring about fast and efficient disposition of all student applications.

The most urgent need facing high school and college officials today is a work simplification program in college admissions practices. There are three steps through which an application for admission must pass before final acceptance or rejection is made. For the sake of classification and discussion they may be conveniently labeled as *the high school stage*, *the college admissions office stage*, and *the college committee on admissions phase*. Since the third or final step in the journey of a student application is purely an evaluative and decision-making process it falls largely outside the subject of work simplification being considered in this article. It is to the first and second steps in a student's application for admission that a plea for a much needed overhaul in present day practices is made.

Let's take a look at some of the extremely undesirable features present in processing college applications for students today. Most, if not all students, file anywhere from two to five applications to as many different colleges. This practice has become fairly widespread in recent years as a result of many articles conveying the idea that there just isn't enough room for all students. Obviously, multiple applications from each student do not increase the college facilities for handling more students. Much of the publicity, replete with glowing statistics, tells of large numbers of applications which may appear to be even two,

three, or four times the amount of actual students the college or colleges are prepared to handle. Little or no mention is made of the fact that a large number of the applications being received by most colleges today are duplicates of applications also sent to several other colleges. Thus, a situation has developed whereby total applications are often used synonymously to represent the number of students seeking admission and may be treated or equated with actual or estimated future college needs if all qualified applicants are to be admitted.

A good example of what is currently happening along this line in North Carolina and all over the nation in varying degrees is seen in the results of an informal survey made in the 45 public and private college (white) in N.C. Each college was asked to estimate the actual number of freshmen applications received and the amount of freshmen students it could handle or did actually admit. As 2 of the 45 colleges are quite new and just getting underway survey forms were sent only to the other 43 schools. The response was 100 per cent and the results should be viewed with some alarm. Total freshmen applications for the 43 colleges were 49,103. The schools reported they could handle or accepted 19,679 students from the total applications received. With a ratio of 40 per cent of the applications being accepted (or 2 out of each 5) it is safe to state that most, if not all of the remaining 29,424 applications were probably duplicates, thus causing high schools and college admission offices to initiate and needlessly process about 3 out of every 5 applications submitted. A great deal of clerical work goes into the preparation and processing of student application forms from the point of origin in the high school to the point where completed application data may be given to an admissions committee for an evaluation and decision of acceptance or rejection in keeping with the admission criteria of each particular college. The widespread practice of filing multiple applications represent a tremendous and shameful waste of personnel, time, and expense for all of the personnel involved. The rapid growth of this practice has evolved as a result of scare headlines about the college crisis. It can and should be eliminated at once through joint action and cooperation by high schools and colleges. In spite of the constant flood of publicity in the realm of higher education only scant attention has been given to the multiple application phenomena. In a recent booklet, copyrighted in 1962 and prepared especially as a

guide for pre-college students and their parents top billing was given to the havoc being created as a result of the multiple filing of applications. Distributed without cost by the Presidential Insurance Company, a committee of the Association for Higher Education, NEA and other professional organizations were consulted in the preparation of the data. Quite frankly, the booklet credits mass media communication with nourishing the idea that colleges are crowded out and room for the qualified high school graduate no longer exists. It illustrates how the filing of wholesale multiple applications and the use of such statistics have created what one college admissions officer calls "a statistical illusion" which has built up the false idea that there isn't any room in colleges.

Let's follow a student's application papers from a point of origin, be it a letter of reference from an individual, transcript and other secondary school records from the high school, an official application form from the student, health records from a doctor, or test scores from some agency. No final action can be taken on a student's application until all of the papers required by a particular college have been received. Since the various forms mentioned above do not originate from a single point of origin or at the same time admission offices receive a deluge of daily mail consisting of incomplete application data. This necessitates setting up a file on each application to await the receipt of all the supporting documents related to each application. As such forms are received they must be collated and placed with the intended applications. At some point in the receipt of each of the various application forms, either as it is received or when all of the necessary papers for a particular application have been received, the student's records undergo careful examination and checking for completeness, accuracy, and other clerical aspects. It becomes readily apparent that the processing of a student's application forms is a time-consuming and exacting operation, even if it is considered from the standpoint of the clerical mechanics alone. All of this is necessary before an application can be given to a committee responsible for further evaluation and decision. Many colleges attempt to correspond with students regarding processing delays encountered by their office as a result of incomplete, incorrect, or unreceived papers pertaining to their applications. It seems safe to state that multiple applications on a grand scale add much confusion,

delay, and shameful waste of personnel, time, and money in an area where efficiency and economy are essential. Further confusion must reign in the area of assigning dormitory or housing facilities with a reasonable degree of certainty or finality when rooms at two, three, or four colleges are tentatively allocated to the same student who has filed multiple applications. This may sound far-fetched but poses a real problem in room assignments on a sound basis.

It is also believed that multiple applications will encourage the admission of more students than can be housed. Each student so admitted is then assigned housing on the basis of an actual deposit large enough to assure the college that such student intends to follow through with attendance. These deposits are handled on a first come—first serve basis until all available rooms are taken. If the college estimates of the numbers of admissions who will actually follow through are close enough, no real trouble develops. If the school is way off in either direction then much confusion and ill-will may result of the gamble taken by the college.

One additional illustration may help to point up the extent of the multiple application growth in North Carolina. The 1962-1963 College Facts Chart distributed by the National Beta Club, Spartanburg, S.C., as of October of each year lists 62 colleges in the state with a combined enrollment of 79,943. The 43 schools in the survey mentioned earlier have an enrollment of 65,026. Freshman classes usually constitute more than one-fourth of the total student body in most colleges. The 19,679 students accepted in the freshman survey represents approximately thirty percent of the 65,026 combined enrollment. This indicates that few, if any, of the 1962 high school graduates desiring to enter college were denied admission to some good college. This lends further credence to the assumption that approximately 30,000 additional or multiple freshman applications were filed in North Carolina alone. No one can justify the tragic waste and attendant confusion to all involved in this practice.

Up to this point an attempt has been made to explore one feature of the college crisis, that of multiple filing of application by individual students. It seems to be both a cause and an effect of much panic on the part of large numbers of students who feel that such a policy must be engaged in if admission to some college is to be gained. Factual

illustrations have been given to support the theory that the practice is having a most harmful effect in many ways and that steps should be taken to eliminate the practice immediately. No student should be permitted to file a second application until final action has been taken on the initial request.

How can the almost vicious practice of filing multiple applications be eliminated without disrupting present admissions programs? What can be done to bring about a fast, orderly, and efficient processing of student applications? Some practical guidelines are being given to accomplish this task.

1. All high school and college officials should agree that *one and only one* application at a time would be submitted on any given student from the high school to one college for processing and a definite decision. This means that top priority would have to be given in high school guidance to help each student seek admission to a college where the chances for acceptance were fairly good. The constant flow of data from colleges to high schools in this area is making this type of counseling possible nowadays. Notification by the college of their decision would be secured promptly and a rejection could be the signal to initiate a second application to another college for their decision.

2. High schools and colleges would need to agree on fairly rigid or consistent dates for the filing of initial applications and perhaps even set suggested dates for second and third applications, when necessary. The schedule of dates might read as follows: By November 1 for the first application; By February 1 for the second application; and by April 1 for the third application.

3. The use of three rather than three and one half years of course grades could become the standard for listing on the transcript and evaluation by colleges. All courses being taken during the senior year would be shown as in progress subjects as is now done for work not completed. Rank in class and the results of standardized tests taken during the first three years of high school would provide evaluative data equal in quality to all that is being furnished now. Several Science Research Associates tests and Educational Testing Service tests are or should be taken by most students before their senior year if such results are to be used for or against them in evaluating a student application. With the practice of early admission and advance placement becoming more common colleges are reaching decisions before or near the beginning of the senior year for many students.

4. Each college admissions committee would be expected to act promptly upon each application properly submitted to them in accordance with the established and official entrance requirements of their particular college. Nothing in the changes being suggested here to eliminate needless multiple filing pertains to altering or discussion of the entrance requirements imposed or maintained by each college. What is being suggested as essential is that each and every college follow a practice of making a prompt decision on every correctly filed application.

5. Widespread publicity, factual, constructively helpful, and positively oriented should be maintained in regard to the evils and waste incurred in filing unnecessary applications. Adequate communication to fully inform the public of the expected benefits from a policy of single filing along the lines suggested above should be sought. Constant diligence to continually improve and speed up admissions procedures without a loss in quality or a return to the spectre of multiple filing should be the goal of *all* high schools and colleges. With the greatest surge in applications for colleges just ahead, failure to act at this time can only result in a compounding of college admission problems.

Parallel Teaching

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One of the most belabored topics concerning the orientation of college freshmen is the responsibility which the library staff should assume in the unit on library-use, sometimes called "Research."

A study of literature on this subject leaves one wondering whether the orientation instructor, a post-graduate in higher education, feels incapable of explaining the tools for learning, or whether librarians feel they gain status when they communicate with students in the classroom.

College freshmen are not entirely unacquainted with libraries. All high schools, today, are equipped with some semblance of a library, if not extensive collections, and most school libraries follow a simplified Dewey Decimal system of arrangement. It was Melvil Dewey's intention to develop a classification simple enough for the layman, and to devise a system for keeping all books on one subject together, with books on related subjects nearby on the shelves. By using primary numbers, the system became expandable and flexible.

Primary numbers are familiar to pre-school children. If the high school graduate has learned to find the X factor in algebra, he should be able to learn that 500 equals science and 900 is the number for history. It is a false assumption that the use of the card catalog requires skills unknown to the students, or that an orientation instructor is incapable of explaining the tools of research which he used in college. Indexes, bibliographies, and yearbooks are no cache for librarians.

As a librarian, I am concerned by the pricking of the consciences of already overworked staff. No amount of mass information in the classroom can eliminate the need for individual assistance in the library. Nor should it. Here the student works with books. Here he must make a choice. He comes with a need, studies the books, evaluates the materials, and produces some sort of result. This is a valuable learning experience.

Professional literature reveals at least three minds on the matter of orientating the freshman to library use. First, there are librarians who continue to give lectures on the card catalog—an effort which presumes to reduce many graduate-level library science hours to one easy freshman lesson. They introduce the indexes with an example from the *Readers Guide to Periodical Literature* as though this represents the “one in all” of research. Encyclopedias are explained by using those which are most common, but less complex, and bibliographies and other reference books are approached with an experience-assignment. Orientation instructors cannot be blamed if they follow this same pattern. It is included in handbooks generally, showing no imagination, offering no incentive for student endeavor, and serving no practical purpose. Often (more often than not) the student never sets foot inside the college library to do his assignment. He copies from a conscientious classmate who was “brainwashed” with busy work before he reached college.

A second type of professional literature reveals the librarian’s frustration caused by classroom hour limitations. He would increase the hours and, having gone this far, favors a Credit Hour for the course. The birth of this idea is its only moment of glory. The problem is not solved. No sure-method has been advanced to satisfy librarians and instructors.

Considering the differences in colleges, how can one method suffice for all? A college in a large metropolitan area presents a different need for an instructional unit on library use than a college isolated and mainly dependent on its own resource materials. A junior college which is part of a university presents still another need.

The third solution would leave the responsibility for teaching library use in the hands of the orientation personnel. It is not required that a married teacher discuss marriage with the students, so why must a librarian be on hand to explain the library? This is somewhat comparable to calling in a doctor to apply a Band-Aid. Who can better explain the problems students will encounter, and advise him how to solve these problems, than a post-graduate with the layman’s point of view? What does the student need to know about library use?

There is the key word: USE. Many librarians wish the unit out of the orientation class and into the English classroom where students work

with tools of written communication. There is a similarity here that has meaning for the student:

- prepare an outline for a research paper
- find references
- use periodical indexes
- make a footnote
- use proper bibliographic form

An unbiased study of student need shows that gathering a bibliography and setting it down in accepted form is confusing to the college freshman. He has not learned the importance of preserving source information, nor has he been taught to weigh and compare opinions. How, then, can he be taught the lesson of library use that will carry over into all of his college work . . . and beyond?

One forward thinking instructor of physical education suggests a plan which has implications for closer cooperation between departments. His students write research papers. His plan is to correct these papers for content, since he knows the field and is most concerned with the student's knowledge of the chosen subject; then, the same papers would be submitted to the English department to be graded for mechanics and treated as an English assignment. One paper, better arranged; more student effort; two grades. And the librarian can be one part of the teaching team.

In the English classroom library use techniques can be clearly explained as research papers develop, and the instructor who introduced them can judge the student's growth by the application of these skills.

However, we would not wish all of the library-use unit out of the orientation classes. There is a need for greater cooperation from the entire faculty in orientating the student to library use, and it should begin with the simple mechanics of the student's approach to the library as an instructional materials center.

First, the student needs to know what the library is and how to use it. This is the approach colleges and high schools have generally used, but any symmetry between the question and the answer has been lost at the start.

These introductory needs can best be explained by the library staff. Briefly, the student will want an explanation of:

I. The physical plant

Give out plans of the interior of the library, to be placed in notebooks.

II. Stacks

A. Explain what a stack is.

B. Specify whether the stacks are open or closed. Explain these terms. Explain, also, if the library restricts the circulation of some books . . . and why.

C. Explain the popular systems of classification (Dewey Decimal, Library of Congress) and give the student a skeleton of the systems. Better yet, show them to him by using an opaque projector so he can see machines in use and venture into closer contact with audio-visual media.

III. Collection

Procedures for borrowing. Loan periods: books, records, college catalogs, periodicals, pictures, interlibrary loans, etc.

IV. Rules to observe

Courtesy (this needs repeating often)

Use of special rooms

Use of special equipment

Smoking regulations

Overdues and penalties

Make use of handout sheets, but be sure to discuss each one before passing out the next. Handbooks and guides tend to get tucked into notebooks and pockets, and forgotten.

The teaching of library use in a college should be designed to fit the individual institution. Therefore, it would be beneficial if the college could produce slides, or, better yet, a film of the campus library to be used between these explanations. In student vernacular, it doesn't have to be a "big production," but it must be real and it must be useful.

After the preliminary introduction, the orientation instructor can discuss study problems with the classes and work closely with the librarian in an effort to create the best study situation for the entire student body. There is always a crying need for etiquette in the use of the library and its materials.

Research—exploration and familiarizing oneself with library tools—should come as the result of special, library directed assignments, and the research paper required by the English department provides this motivation. It is more rewarding to both the librarian and the student if their association is one of discovery and investigation. The pat assignments directing 200 students to ask identical questions is absurd. And yet, 200 students intent on tracking down 200 subjects plus related subjects is neither boring nor frustrating for either library staff or students. Often these students come back for additional information, even after their papers have been turned in.

English instructors working closely with the library staff to set up library-directed assignments should encourage (if not demand) the student to “analyze and compare.” The student who is prepared to discuss, criticize, defend, sift, and think out is the one who learns the value of independent study and makes the best use of professional librarianship. As a result of proper library-directed assignments, the library staff becomes acquainted with these students and the students develop a camaraderie with the librarians. This, in turn, produces good library attitudes.

There is nothing added to the teaching load. The librarian’s introductory “tours” can be done in manageable sized groups during orientation week. Hours need not be adjusted to accommodate extra duties or cause a conflict of appointments. The audio-visual equipment can be reserved without interrupting other class programs. Then, actual library use can be integrated as a content-concealed part of class work. It need not be a thing apart, nor an enigma with all the rites and fanfares of an added attraction.

The Vision of Truth —

Basic Perspectives in Emerson's Philosophy of Education

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I

Understanding that the greatest truths are frequently the simplest, Emerson goes straight to the heart of educational philosophy: integrity is the indispensable condition; truth is the essential core. Immersed in the trivia of utilitarianism, modern man is not likely sympathetically to view this insistence that truth is the heart of education. Being a mature writer, however, Emerson knew and expected criticism; thus he makes no sign of deference or apology in the face of his critics. It is the sacredness of an individual's integrity, his unqualified concern for the truth of what he believes, that animates the authentic person. Each one of us must absolve himself by being true to himself; he must know truth and live by that truth. Then, suggests Emerson, although with undeniable exaggeration, the individual shall have the respect of the world. When in his thirties and before the exuberance of youth had waned, he affirmed confidently, and perhaps with equal exaggeration that, "Truth will cure all our ills" (J, 5, 299). Although truth may not, in fact, cure all our ills, it is the indispensable basis and objective of whatever may legitimately be called "education."

Paradoxically enough, enjoins Emerson, thoughts which embody truth come not from the mind, as orthodox rationalistic theory suggests, but rather from the heart. Man's moral sensibilities give him knowledge of truth and of justice; no catechism or similar formalistic statement can supply it. These thoughts from our moral sensibilities are our instructors that make all other instruction seem both formal and effete (LT, I, 250). The philosopher mistakes the course of history and the nature of character unless he realizes that morality is at the heart of each. Education rightly conceived will teach that progress in history

is moral, that truth emerges from the incessant struggle between the material and spiritual forces of life (WIE, XI, 133). And such education will show us further that "character is the habit of action from the permanent vision of truth" (Ch, X, 119). So to train character is as difficult an obligation as it is an inescapable obligation of education. Yet that such a responsibility is imposed upon the teacher, the man of letters, and the scholar should not surprise one conversant with the idealistic orientation of Emerson's philosophy. His Platonism, his transcendentalism, his rejection of sophism, and his preference for Carlyle and Kant rather than for Hume and Locke—all these things assert that truth is universal not particular, that it is transcendent not immanent, and that its mastery is indeed a profound responsibility.

II

The masses failed to elicit Emerson's enthusiasm. He counseled that they are generally uncultivated, undistinguished, and in need of schooling (CBW, VI, 237). As a contemporary of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, and other exponents of public education, he noted the earnestness with which the cause of mass education was argued. The grounds for its justification seemed to him weak as it was principally based, so he reasoned, upon the desire to make the masses sympathetic to the cultural values of the upper classes. Once the mass came to share the same tastes as the upper class, then presumably the mass would accept the status quo and not challenge the existing distribution of wealth, the sentiments of the judiciary, or any of the other arrangements so favorable to the interest of position and wealth. But with even greater force the principal objection to mass education lies in the fact that it is an attempt to do for the masses what in point of fact cannot be done for them. The individual man may be educated, not mass man (E, X, 151). This view was not the cynical product of disenchanted maturity. As early as 1827, Emerson observed in a letter to his brother Edward Bliss, "... tis vain to attempt to regenerate mankind by a patent education whilst the evil we would cure is out of the reach of education, viz. the original inequality of intellect" (L, 1, 220).

Society at large, the masses, burden the individual. The alert individual can very soon learn all that society has to teach, for society is one long round of entertainment, excitement, routine, and trivia. The wise

man is he who learns the futility which society has to teach; he is one who can retire into himself and draw upon his own spiritual resources; he can recollect his spirits (LE, 169). Seemingly unimportant to the practically minded man, such recollection of the spirit is critical, for, says Emerson, it is the spirit alone that can teach. Men who are profane, sensuels, and prevaricators, none of these can be real teachers for the elemental reason that he who can teach must have something moral and intellectual to give; he must be one through whom the very soul itself speaks. The great virtues can teach—love and wisdom, reverence and courage. It is the spontaneity of the spirit that must guide the teacher. Rely upon books, upon the dictates of some church council, or the dead hand of custom, then one babbles. Exclaims Emerson, “Let him hush” (DSA, 133)!

III

A slyly amusing note creeps onto Emerson’s comments on education when he observes that the public cannot decide whether it wants elective or compulsory studies, whether professors or private tutors should conduct education, or whether we should emphasize the humanities or the sciences; nevertheless, one thing all agree on, he avers in his *Journal*, is the need to increase the library (10, 263). But, continues Emerson, books are fine if the boy is ready for them. As desirable as books may be, many lads develop slowly and get their introduction to learning from other and unexpected quarters. The schoolmaster is the formal teacher; the boy’s fellow students are his real teachers. Parents choose Greek or Latin for their children, but serious learning takes place on the way to and from school. Equal in influence with books are games—chess and cards, fishing, boating, archery, and the arts of dancing and drama. From all these latter activities young men learn what mankind is about and master what would otherwise appear as oddities in the eyes of a poorly rounded pedant (C, 137-8).

Successfully to compete with these informal educating influences, the teacher must be a person of genuine worth. For what a person really is, he will teach. Not voluntarily does he teach the student what he is, but involuntarily. And no device or technique or pretense will cover that reality. Attuned to the fact that he inadvertently teaches himself, the good teacher also uses restraint. He understands that lack of vision

leads us to make boys into men such as we are rather than trying to help them become all that they possibly can—morally, intellectually, spiritually, and physically. Writing with epigrammatic power, Emerson enjoins the teacher—"You are trying to make that man another you. One's enough" (E, 136)!

Pinpointing a universal truth, Emerson calls scholars and intellectuals generally to task for not knowing their own strength. Anyone who has lived in an academic community can well appreciate the reason, for he ascribes it to political baseness (PC, VIII, 220). But the explanation goes deeper. Scholars are much too inclined to please people. They become courtiers at the banquets of the great; they amuse those who want amusement (NHI, XII, 8). Scholars are a treacherous lot, exclaims Emerson. Since the scholar is (or should be) an idealist, he is bound to stand for freedom and for justice as well as for the public good. Freedom of the press, freedom of trade, freedom of religion and all the virtues should receive his allegiance. Scholars so afield as to neglect or to deny these loyalties can redeem themselves by speaking to the issue, by forthrightness, for, counsels Emerson, "it seems not unfit that the scholar should deal plainly with society . . ." (J, 5, 82). The true scholar will speak forthrightly and write pointedly.

IV

So to write is to master the secret of character. So to write is the consequence of profound sincerity. Many oversights may be forgiven the intellectual person, but he is not to be forgiven if he must take his ideas from others. From such "deferences comes the imbecility and fatigue" that besets society (NHI, 28). Equally fatal to the intellectual life, in fact to man himself, is the passion for display. Preoccupation with display is a disease sometimes indigenous to literary men and scholars; they mistake the means of language for the end of language. Those who succumb to this malady find that the world repays them with neglect, for their work becomes pedantic. The prudent scholar will heed the sage's counsel; he will avoid corruption by remembering that his art is more than talent. In fact, talent by itself could never make a scholar. It is the personality and the mind that makes him what he is. If he is given without reservation to his doctrines, then what he has to say may very likely bear the label of talent (GO, IV, 267-8). And he

should also heed the counsel that young scholars particularly must not leave out of what they write the very thing for which their narrative was written (G, 292). Emerson presupposes that the teacher shall be at least in some minimum degree both intellectual and literary.

In summary statement, Emerson's educational philosophy looks like this: In epistemology he is an intuitionist—one who believes that knowledge is the product of non-empirical intuitive insight. In metaphysics he is an idealist—one who believes that reality is essentially mental in nature. In axiology he is a transcendentalist—one who believes that absolute, apprehendable values are imbedded in the structure of the transcendently real. In subject matter he is a dualist—one who believes that the traditional classical subjects and the useful should both go into the making of a complete man. In methodology, he is an indifferentist—one who believes that the techniques of instruction are not important provided that truth, integrity, and serious purpose—all with the leaven of humor—are plowed into the mind and the heart of the learner. He doubts the possibility of mass education; holds institutionalized instruction to be overrated; sees the futility of indoctrination; and admonishes the scholar to produce, not please. In conclusion, although Emerson is perhaps our most eminent spokesman for individualism and democracy, he is in no sense a spokesman for democracy in education.

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Student Reaction to the Ungraded Primary

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With the complexity of life today, characterized by the modern electronic world and the almost total conquering of space travel, elementary schools are undergoing major modifications and changes. The lay man is vitally interested in the organization of the schools to which his tax dollar has been allotted. Such lay interest is healthy and to bring to fruition and keep alive the current upsurge of the impact of the school, educators, too, need to refurbish their philosophy of thinking concerning the organizational patterns.

A current departure from the traditional organization [gaining impetus] is that known as the ungraded school, or continuous progress plan. With the increasing number of pupils each year, many schools throughout the country have adopted or are contemplating the adoption of this plan. The current research¹ is marked by the number of articles attesting to the interest of school personnel in this pattern.

The ungraded primary or primary unit is best described as an administrative device by which pupils who remain with the same teacher are grouped to permit continuous progress during a period of two or more consecutive years.²

As early as 1848, one may note the beginning of the graded school. Frequent reclassification ensued during the following decades. The elementary schools of America however, have been quite consistent in their organizational pattern. True, there has been some attempt to vary the pace of accomplishment by setting up specific plans, viz., Winnetka, Dalton, Pueblo, and the Batavia Plans. Historically, these organizational patterns have either disappeared or have been modified.

¹ John I. Goodlad, Robert H. Anderson, *The Nongraded Elementary School* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1959).

² Stuart E. Dean, *Elementary School Administration and Organization* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health Education and Welfare, 1960), p. 23.

The past decade has witnessed a renaissance of interest in the Montessori method of teaching.

The idea of "social promotion" is not synonymous with the ungraded school. The principle of "continuous promotion" signifies the advancement of pupils along a broken front in the significant curriculum areas.³ Thus each pupil progresses through nine growth levels.

For many years, the Milwaukee elementary grades have been organized on the ungraded primary plan. The leaders in the movement, Anderson and Kelly, stress that the methods of teaching accompanied by the levels of groupings remain the same as in the traditional school, but that the difference is mainly one of organization. Actually, the groups according to the Milwaukee plan break into nine growth levels: reading readiness, pre-primer, primer, first reader, second reader, advanced second reader, third reader, advanced third reader, and fourth reader.

Recognizing that any departure will possess limitations, nevertheless one should be less hesitant in attempting a plan which has many positive and promising factors. These strengths are summarized as follows.

1. Each child has a block of uninterrupted time to master the skills of reading.

2. No passing to the next level is permitted until the child has an adequate understanding of the present level, especially in the basic learnings.

3. Individual differences in mental maturity, social competence, and rate of achievement are constantly recognized and considered in the progress of each child.

4. There is a considerable saving of teacher time who remaining with the group for a longer span of time progresses with the group on their learning level instead of trying to study a new group before her each semester.

5. With the general emphasis on the education of the gifted, in the ungraded primary there is permitted ample scope both horizontal and vertical for the fast learner.

A recent publication summarizes the current organizational patterns for the elementary schools in the United States. Table 1 shows these data.

³ Goodlad and Anderson, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

The most commonly used form is that of the 6-3-3- plan as seen in Table 1. A combination of the 6-3-3 and the 8-4 plan accounts for 50 per cent of all schools. The ungraded primary plan including either K-3 or 1-3 is used in approximately one fifth of the urban areas throughout the United States.

TABLE 1
SCHOOL ORGANIZATION, EXCLUSIVE OF ALL CONSIDERATION
OF PUBLICLY SUPPORTED KINDERGARTEN PROGRAMS, BY
U.S. TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES AND BY REGIONAL
PERCENTAGES⁴

Region	Ungraded Primary	O r g a n i z a t i o n				
		6-3-3	6-2-4	6-6	8-4	7-5
Northeast	14.5	31.0	10.7	14.6	32.9	5.3
North Central	18.2	35.0	21.5	19.0	16.7	.9
South	18.2	36.0	15.2	10.3	26.2	3.7
West	21.8	31.0	18.2	15.0	18.2	5.1

Since then the ungraded unit appears to be on the increase, it is of significance to explore the thinking of the prospective teacher who is to staff these schools.

After a unit on the school organization with special emphasis on the ungraded unit, citing the new trends, the apparent advantages and limitations, a class of elementary majors conducted further exploration through reports and panel presentations. It was then decided through questionnaire data to ascertain their choice of teaching in a self-contained traditional type classroom, or in an ungraded unit.

The respondents were asked one question: Presume that you are fully trained to teach in the primary grades or in the ungraded primary unit, and that two options are given you, viz., to teach one primary grade or to teach the ungraded primary unit, choose one, giving a reason for your choice.

One hundred forty-eight responses were tabulated, with 51.35 per cent indicating that they would choose the ungraded primary unit, and 48.65 per cent choosing a self-contained primary grade.

A sampling of the responses for choosing the ungraded unit revealed diverse reasons. Among these are the following:

⁴ *Elementary School Administration and Organization, op. cit.*, p. 11 and p. 25.

1. I want to teach the gifted child; the new program cares for these pupils more comprehensively.
2. The bright child would progress faster and the program would allow more time to work with the slow.
3. This program would help to develop the all-round personality of the child.
4. It is possible to know the individual more intimately, being with them for a longer time.
5. There would be better rapport and teacher-pupil adjustment.
6. This extended period would help me to learn more about the habits and peculiarities of each child and observe his progress more closely.
7. There is possibly a more sequential continuity of learning.
8. The strain or pressure on attaining grades is lessened.
9. The child's readiness pattern is uppermost in teacher understanding of pupils.
10. Maladjustments would be caught earlier in the children's school life.
11. A better evaluation of the growth pattern is possible.
12. The child can move at his own pace under guidance of the teacher.

The majority of reasons stressed the splendid opportunities for the teacher to understand the intellectual and personality differences of her pupils. Similarly, a large percentage indicated that both gifted and slow would benefit from the plan.

Of the 48.65 per cent choosing a primary grade the following reasons were given:

1. The teacher is apt to become subjective as she learns more about a child.
2. Children benefit from having various teachers.
3. I would rather have a new class each year to introduce the fundamentals (Grade 1).
4. Since she is in one grade, the teacher gets to know her work better.
5. A clash of personalities may result.
6. A lack of objectivity may develop in appraising pupil growth.

7. A good teacher has her pupils "pegged" within a month.
8. There are more and fresh challenges, meeting a new group each year.
9. Pupils may become attached to one teacher.
10. A difficulty may arise in keeping the groups occupied.
11. Certain prejudices are bound to be formed in a 3-year period.
12. Too wide an age-span presents many problems.
13. Teacher's time and energy are spread too thin in ungraded plan.
14. Starting out with a new teacher each year gives a better chance to each pupil.
15. Pupils become too conditioned to one system of instruction, making adjustment difficult at later levels.
16. Teacher may become a specialist in her grade.
17. Pupil may become too dependent on teacher.
18. Each year would be a new adventure.
19. Children never feel the joy of competition in meeting a new group.

The satisfaction of starting a new class each year accompanied by the joy of accomplishment appears to be the thinking of many students who prefer to teach in the graded organization. Many of these reasons both for and against are based on a limited knowledge of classroom techniques. Nevertheless, it is heartening to note the excellent reasons presented by the novice student teachers. Using many of these comments, an attempt was made during the class discussion to point out fallacies, invalid conclusions and wrong inferences and thus correct erroneous notions concerning both forms of organization.

Regardless of background training, the feeling of security one may receive by teaching in a single grade appeared justified in the responses. However, it is most gratifying to sense the spirit of adventure and challenge inherent in the new, and to see the eagerness with which the novice teacher is ready to try the unknown. Such a worthy ambition needs stimulation.

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CCTV or Classroom Observation Which Shall It Be?

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An ever-increasing interest in ETV is evidenced by the many articles appearing in print today. This trend will continue as research goes on and techniques in the use of television in teaching and learning are refined. Not as a researcher but as a classroom teacher I should like to share the feeling of my students as expressed in class and their spontaneous reaction to the following examination question:

Compare your experience in visiting classes at P.S.—with viewing classes over closed-circuit television. Point out the advantages and limitations of each form of observation in relation to your preparation for teaching.

Students in *Elementary Education: Its Organization, Curriculum, and Methods* at Hunter College of the City University of New York are fortunate in having access to CCTV in addition to regular classroom observation in an outside school. One of the features of field observation at this institution is the assignment of a nearby public school in the city system to each elementary methods course for guided observations in conjunction with the work of the course. The outside school in this instance is about twenty minutes walking distance from the college, and the campus school from which the CCTV originates is in the college building. The children in both schools are accustomed to many visitors. One cannot predict, however, to what extent the children at any given time are affected by visitors in the classroom, by being televised, or by sensing the teacher's own reaction to being observed. The two types of observation in this article are comparable in that during a double period the college students saw two elementary school classes for thirty minutes each, one in the early and the other in the upper grades, both within the same designated area of language arts, such as reading, language skills, creative expression. All observations were followed by discussion immediately or as soon as possible.¹

¹ Contrary to other findings, cf. footnote 4, the discussion following the classroom observation always seemed much more spontaneous and spirited than that after the telecast.

Although due recognition was accorded CCTV, the responses of all students showed that more had been gained from observation in a classroom than via CCTV. The points enumerated below are gathered from class discussions and examination booklets:

Advantages of CCTV over Classroom Observation

1. The entire class and teacher could see the same lesson which then served as a basis for discussion.
2. The college teacher could comment during the telecast. (If student teachers are assigned to the performing campus school class, they can be present in the college class during the telecast to answer immediate questions about classroom procedures and the children with whom they work).
3. There was time for discussion directly after viewing while interest was high.
4. The teacher of the class observed could come over from the campus school immediately after the telecast to participate in the discussion of the lesson observed.
5. Close concentration was promoted through focusing student attention and eliminating distractions.
6. The camera made close-ups possible.
7. Visitors did not disturb the children.

Advantages of Classroom² over CCTV Observation

1. "Telling" effect of physical aspect of building and classrooms, of bulletin boards and show cases in corridors. (Students could have been encouraged to see this in campus school prior to the CCTV lesson).
2. Personal contact with administrators and school personnel. As students walked through the building they saw children, teachers, parents, administrators in action. As they passed rooms they saw lessons in progress. (Students could have been encouraged to see this, too, prior to the CCTV lesson).
3. Striking effect of color, lack of which seemed to make the CCTV

² If classroom observations had taken place in the campus school instead of in the outside school, the most marked difference, because of no traveling, would have resulted in time available for immediate class discussion after the observation, with the teacher of the class observed participating.

performance less alive. The atmosphere and mood seemed affected by color in dress, bulletin boards, decorations—"colorful, gay, sparkling; drab, dull, boring."

4. Better opportunity to see the effect of personality qualities of teacher on the climate of the room and the reaction of the children.
5. Better opportunity to get the "feel of teaching." The class seemed more "real."
6. Better opportunity for the observer to judge rapport between teacher and pupil; between pupil and pupil.
7. Better opportunity to become part of the group as participation in the classroom scene was made possible. Closeness and togetherness seemed lacking in CCTV which appeared to create a barrier and "leave the observer out."
8. Opportunity for broader vision in classroom whereas in CCTV vision was limited by camera.
9. Greater visibility of the outcome of the lesson as one got a close look at children's work by circulating among them or having them show what they had produced. (CCTV can magnify objects and focus attention on a single item or subject for a given time. Small objects, however, sometimes become indistinct and difficult to distinguish even with enlargement).
10. Placing of materials, such as text, workbook, exercises in the hands of the college students to help them in following the lesson. (The same could have been arranged beforehand for the CCTV lesson).
11. Opportunity for exchange of varied experiences during the discussion period because of division of college class into small groups for classroom observation.
12. Opportunity for regular classroom teacher to answer questions right on the spot.

Full effectiveness of either type of observation depends on many factors. First of all, arrangements initiated by the college instructor require coordination and cooperation in a team approach. Secondly, the students' readiness needs to be considered.⁸ In the third place, there

⁸ Helpful suggestions may be found in: Sister Mary Lucina, "Readiness for Professional Laboratory Experiences," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, X,3 (September, 1959) pp. 310-14 and also Geraldine Murphy, "The Prospective Teacher as Observer," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, XIII,2 (June, 1962) pp. 150-56.

is dependence upon the ability of the instructor as he assists in the analysis and interpretation of the observation. Finally, it is helpful if a follow-up after the discussion can clinch what has been observed. In my own class, for example, it was found valuable while learning about lesson-planning to watch theories exemplified and afterwards prepare lesson plans based on what had been seen.

Even after a great deal of time has been spent in preparation, something may go wrong. One can never be sure that the objectives of the observation will be realized. Unforeseen interruptions and circumstances, an off-day for children and teacher, and the “unexpected” in a lesson may add to the learning experience of the teacher education student, but not in the way anticipated. Besides the human element, an observer may encounter technical difficulties with the CCTV equipment. One must consider the quality of the picture, the camera work, and the sound. Is the teacher’s voice distorted? More important still, can one hear what the children are saying? The television director at the control panel must understand and be sensitive to what is wanted by the college class, picking out with his camera what is meaningful for the specific observation. It requires skill also on the part of the college instructor to quickly catch and comment on significant happenings as they take place. As practice familiarizes the instructor with this new medium, effectiveness in its use as an instructional tool will undoubtedly increase.

CONCLUSION

It would appear that in deciding whether to use CCTV or classroom observation, the instructor should ask himself the following questions:

1. What is the objective of the observation?
2. What is the relative value of each type of observation in relation to the objective?
3. How much time is available?
4. How do the observation request and time schedule fit in with other commitments of the school?
5. What is the audio-video quality of the CCTV?

If the absence of visitors in the room would provide a more normal teaching situation; if the time element plays an important part; if the same experience for all is desired; if the teacher wishes to comment during the lesson; if the discussion should take place immediately

after the lesson and, if possible, in the presence of the teacher of the performing class; if attention is to be directed to specific details; if the development of the lesson is to be studied to the exclusion of distractions, then it would seem that CCTV would serve the purpose better.

On the other hand, if interest lies predominantly in multiple experiences for the purpose of observing the interaction of various elements in the total school picture; in the physical aspect of the school and the emotional climate of the classroom; in personal contact and closeness to the teaching situation as learning goes on; in the personality and methodology of the teacher and the reaction of the children, then classroom observation would be the better choice.⁴

It is, indeed, classroom observation from which my teacher education students derived the greatest satisfaction and inspiration.

⁴ Findings similar in some respects are reported by David Weiss, "Closed-Circuit Television and Teacher Education," *The Educational Forum*, XXVI,2 (January, 1962) pp. 229-31. Differences may be explained by the fact that the observers were already teachers and the performers were junior and senior high school students in a foreign language class.

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Book Reviews

Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice. By Hilda Taba. (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1962. Pp. 529. \$6.95.)

Dr. Hilda Taba of San Francisco State College has produced a significant addition to existing comprehensive treatments of curriculum development and planning. She has utilized to fine advantage in this new volume her extensive experiences in curriculum development in connection with the Eight-Year Study and the Intergroup Education Project and also in varied consultative relationships in California and elsewhere. Her great insight into curriculum problems coupled with a rare technical competence in evaluation and research contribute to making this one of the definitely superior books in its field.

Dr. Taba's analytical approach to curriculum development is demonstrated in the outline of her book. Part One deals with the foundations for curriculum development: functions of the school, the analysis of society and culture, learning theories, individual development, various aspects and problems of learning, and the nature of knowledge. The author takes care in her interpretation of these foundation areas to review pertinent literature and research, and to point out educational implications. She turns to the process of curriculum planning in Part Two, presenting this in terms of her conception of the logical steps of defining objectives, diagnosis, selection of curriculum experiences, organization of curriculum content and learning, and evaluation. A concluding chapter in Part Two illustrates the process of curriculum planning through a detailed treatment of the development of a teaching-learning unit. Almost four-fifths (19 of 24 chapters) of the book are devoted to these first two Parts. Parts Three and Four deal briefly with curriculum design and curriculum change, respectively.

The reviewer is especially impressed with the treatment of the foundation areas in Part One. Contrasting theories and positions regarding social, psychological, and philosophical issues are clearly identified and neatly classified. The author herself generally avoids doctrinaire positions and frequently exposes the fallacy of either-or choices; for example: "Both extremes—the valuing of subjects per se and of processes per se—operate as criteria for curriculum development—

both these extreme concepts of the functions of subjects are equally untenable" (p. 174). New syntheses and interpretations are offered, too. For example, the transfer of learning is treated most helpfully in Chapter Nine: "The curriculum always must stress those things which promise most transfer, which create a mastery and understanding of matters beyond that which is taught directly" (p. 121). Chapter Eleven, on "The Extension of Learning," synthesizes considerable recent writings and research on human potentiality and creativity. Some ideas recently hailed as "new" are shown to have had earlier expression; for example: "The idea that subject matter has structure and that understanding this structure should be the central objective in teaching is not entirely new. In the 1920's there were innumerable studies in social sciences searching for generalizations to guide and to unify the 'unfortunate particularism' in this field" (p. 176).

Definite contributions are also made in other Parts. The concept and procedure of diagnosis ("essentially a process of determining the facts which need to be taken into account in making curriculum decisions," p. 231) should be very helpful in the process of curriculum development. Chapters Fifteen and Sixteen on, respectively, "Diagnosis in Curriculum Development" and "Informal Diagnostic Devices" offer many specific suggestions for curriculum planning. The chapter (Nineteen) on "Evaluation of the Outcomes of Curricula" strikes the reviewer as an especially useful treatment of this difficult aspect of curriculum work. The final chapter (Twenty-Four) on "Working with Groups" is replete with suggestions for productive group work in curriculum development.

The reviewer finds it difficult to accept only one principle of Taba's theory of curriculum development. She objects strenuously, and certainly with good reason, to planning the curriculum framework in advance of planning and testing specific teaching-learning units: "Imposing a new curriculum design on top of unrevised teaching-learning units is like putting a new front on an old house whose interior remains the same" (p. 344). But, the reviewer wonders, can the interior be changed advisedly without some notions as to the ultimate blend desired of interior and exterior design and decoration? It appears that Dr. Taba may in this instance, the matter of curriculum design, be leaning a bit to the either-or position she avoids elsewhere. Undoubtedly Hilda

Taba as curriculum consultant would have so well in mind the conceptual framework for curriculum design she describes in Chapter Twenty-Two that the curriculum committee concerned would be led to plan teaching-learning units with adequate concern for the total design. Committees without such help, however, might develop apparently excellent units which fit neither the existing program nor any new one that can reasonably be expected. In the reviewer's judgment, and probably the author would not disagree, despite her emphasis on unit development, curriculum planners have to work on exterior and interior portions of the curriculum plan somewhat simultaneously. Discussions of the total design and of specific curriculum units feed each other problems, hypotheses, and tests of curriculum development.

This book contains many gems in pithy statements of highly significant, key ideas. Note these.

—one might say that in the period following World War II curriculum development has suffered from arrested progressivism (p. 5).

A curriculum is essentially a plan for learning (p. 76).

The mistake of the so-called experience curricula was that they failed to emphasize sufficiently conceptualization and critical analysis because it was assumed that experiencing alone produces adequate learning (p. 156).

Objectives are developmental, representing roads to travel rather than terminal points (p. 203).

Intellectual excellence without a value orientation and a social perspective can be easily put to serving unhuman needs, as recent history has well demonstrated (p. 276).

Much grief has come from an indiscriminate participation of everyone in everything (p. 452).

Some readers may feel that the publisher of this excellent volume failed to make it as physically attractive as it is intellectually challenging. Few charts and no photographs are used. This reader objects to having to turn to the 20-page bibliographical index to get the facts other than the name of author, date of publication, and page reference, about each of the many sources cited.

Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice offers much help to students and practitioners in the curriculum field. Amidst the curriculum complexities and confusions of the times, Taba's book steers a careful course toward more analytical and productive curriculum improvement.

WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER

George Peabody College for Teachers

The Education of the Secondary School Teacher. Edited by Ernest Stabler. (Middletown, Conn.: Wesleyan University Press, 1962. Pp. 239. \$5.00.)

The editor of this excellent book covers briefly and clearly in his personally written first three chapters the history of the professional education movement in this country, its current status, and the comparable development in England and in France. The last so well done that one regrets he did not share his experience in Germany and Denmark. Little which is new is offered but the discussion provides a sound and clear basis for the later chapters, both those on philosophy and psychology for teachers, and those devoted to specific disciplines.

The section, Chapters 4 and 5, on using the parent disciplines, philosophy and psychology, follows the same happy approach of holding to minimum content and clarity in application. Yet there is no sense of inadequacy in the presentation, but rather appreciation of the skill in identifying the essentials without over extension so often found in both areas.

For the student preparing to teach, or for the instructor concerned with the preparation of teachers the final five chapters which are devoted to the subjects of English, history, modern languages, science, and mathematics, there is specific and rewarding reading. As might be expected, since these chapters are written by specialists in each subject, there is a marked difference in content and treatment, but all are stimulating presentations.

The emphasis in English is largely on what should be, "The focus of the literature courses should be the reading of works of literature as works of art." The total teacher preparatory program is covered, with little attention to the classroom procedures needed by the prospective teacher. Reality may be somewhat lost in the catalogue of the desirable.

The approach in history is suggested as centering around education conceived as the "process of intellectual growth" which while admittedly lifelong is "dealing here primarily with the history teacher's training in a program of graduate professional education." Major attention is given to defining the nature and scope of history with minimum attention to procedures.

In modern languages instruction emphasis is upon the early

language training experience of the teacher and his exposure to a culture other than his own with a suggestion of a six-year sequence of foreign language study.

The treatment of science is rather brief with a reflection of the current concern about curriculum development in this area, with the need to find an answer to "What about science is important to stress?"

In the discussion of mathematics emphasis is upon the changing nature of the content and the changing need for mathematicians, brought on through a changing technology, one aspect of which is "its perpetual and ever-accelerated change." And a final quotation seems not only appropriate to this specific area, but one which should be an aim of all secondary education. "A key principle, then, in any course of mathematics is that it must encourage and establish the student's habit of examining evidence for himself."

CHILES VAN ANTWERP

George Peabody College for Teachers

Psychology in the Making: Histories of Selected Research Problems.

Edited by Leo Postman. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962. Pp. 785. \$9.00.)

As is true of so many current books, the subtitle of this volume is more accurate than the title. The major title seems to be designed to enhance the saleability of the book. If the major title were taken at face value, one would expect a comprehensive and closed picture of the steps by which psychology got into the shape it is in today. In this case, the most profound statement in the book would be in Postman's preface, "The chapters of the book do not add up to a comprehensive history of psychology . . ."

The book is a set of essays on the development of the theoretical and methodological sophistication which has been attained in a few specific research problem areas. The essays represent the interests and enthusiasms of individual members of a single department of psychology (at the University of California). As is true of all departments, there are limits on the breadth but not necessarily on the depth. Some of the essays are better than others. Taken as a group, however, they reflect the high caliber of individual thinking and the sheer enthusiasm

which must have been present there at the time this book was being prepared. As tedious as some aspects of collaborative bookwriting may be, this project, on the whole, must have been fun.

After Crutchfield and Krech give some introductory instructions about how one is to think about history and about this book—quite a number of *deja vu* experiences occur here—one is then presented with a series of chapters on “biological foundations of behavior.” One wonders for a moment whether the authors of the book may be locked into a reductionistic bind by thinking that the biological, i.e., the more molecular, constructs are the only ones which can be viewed as the “foundations” or “bases” of behavior. But, one has to start a book somewhere. Anyway, to propose that the molar personality constructs at the end of the book provide the antecedent “foundation” by which to view cortical localization would perhaps frighten the readers and contributors alike.

The presentation by Krech of cortical localization of function is excellent from any dimension which this reviewer can describe. Does the cerebral cortex have localized stimulus, motor, and associative areas, or does it not? With the findings of Penfield so much in current focus, the issues of “equipotentiality” and “mass action” seem like “dead horses.” However, Krech impresses one greatly with the impact which this struggle had upon research in this area.

Following this chapter, Rosenzweig writes about the specific drives of hunger and thirst. He describes the progression of methodology and research findings with regard to their mechanisms. The perspective he gives regarding what goes on in research and hypothesis-building goes well beyond the specific subject area he treats.

Finally, McClearn presents a thoroughly enjoyable essay on the inheritance of behavior. Without saying so, he impresses one greatly with the fact that this field remains to be exploited by psychologists. For the most part, only a few and the more cumbersome psychological variables, such as intelligence, have been attacked by populational genetics and cytogenetics research.

The next group of chapters concerns perception, learning, and memory. To begin, Hochberg, like Rosenzweig, chooses a narrowly delineated problem: whether our responsiveness to three-dimensional space is learned or whether it is innate. “Perception,” he says, “is

the name for the inferred psychological processes which underly our awareness of the world about us." Certainly not reductionistic, this definition-quasiproposition is intriguing, if not puzzling, upon close examination.

Following Hochberg, Postman comes forth to present a topic which is close to the heart of almost every American psychologist regardless of stripe: rewards and punishments in human learning. For the student who has been thrown directly into modern learning theory without the exposure to Thorndike's earlier contributions, this chapter is a masterpiece. (I hate to admit this. Postman once gave me a "B" in a course.) The evaluation of the law of effect, the difficult problem in the role of punishment, and the relation of these to Hull's and Tolman's modern theories of learning are clearly presented. The symbolic reinforcements, being told one is "Right" or "Wrong," are also reviewed.

As one looks at current research and theory, one can see how it rests on and fills gaps in this earlier work in rewards and punishments. Symbolic reinforcements are responded to differently by children at different age levels and not at all in infancy. The theoretical implications of this fact were apparently not considered by the early theorists. Furthermore, although much emphasis was put upon the association of the subject's response with the after-effect (reinforcement), no attention was given to the fact that the human subject might associate the after-effect with chance or with the control of some outside agent rather than with his own behavior. Another difficult theoretical problem was punishment. Punishment was rejected early as a factor which weakened a habit (S-R connection). It was relegated to a role of causing variable behavior. Somehow or other, it was not viewed as building up a completing avoidance habit through drive induction (punishment-onset). Thus, earlier connectionism learning theories could not explain those specific instances where an individual, highly motivated, could be told, "That's wrong. Don't do it that way again"—and he would not. These current research issues become all the more exciting with the background presented by Postman.

To conclude this section of the book Riley reviews the hard-won advances of research on memory for forms. His story of how researchers, each in turn, profited from mistakes of previous workers,

should be read by any person who would wish to advance the research still further. Moreover, the research area might enjoy some advances when it is applied to the form retention difficulties of brain damaged, mentally defective, and psychotic individuals.

The final series of chapters deals with individual differences and personality. Tuddenham discusses the nature and measurement of intelligence. Like Krech, he includes a bit of the intrigue about those principal parties who unwittingly brought this area to such a high level of public awareness. Like Postman, he presents a masterful coverage which will probably attract and burden psychology students and doctoral "prelim" candidates for years to come. While complaining of the need for theory to resolve the conflict between treating intelligence as "learning process" vs. "content already learned," Tuddenham gives the brilliant impression of one who could in fact develop an integrated and effective new theory of intelligence.

The recent popular debate concerning clinical vs. statistical prediction is discussed by Gough. If it were not for the fact that this debate was in most respects about a "straw man" issue in the first place, Gough's definitive statements would represent a landmark. His informed comments about the role of clinical predictions removes once and for all many of the naive notions which served to develop the issue. After all, who wants to worry about the issue when the clinical observer has identified the relevant predictors so well that they can be refined and maximized through the process of statistical prediction? Who wants to worry about the issue when the criterion requiring prediction has no adequate existing statistical predictors and the clinician is at the frontier of knowledge identifying the relevant predictors?

Sucking behavior is described in a chapter by McKee and Honzik. This chapter occupies 9.7% (rounded) of the book. Whether sucking involves 9.7% of all human behavior probably depends on definition. Certainly, the book does not devote the proportional percentage of content to natural sleep. Seriously, the chapter has its broad as well as its narrow implications. (No, it does not tell how to cure thumb-sucking.) It portrays the nature-nuture issue. It tantalizes the reader with the possibility of a useful, non-circular construct of pleasure, a word which has been taboo in psychology for a long time. Furthermore, it suggests that the authors have enjoyed about as much of need-drive

theory as they can stand.

The strange story of repression as a psychological construct is presented by MacKinnon and Dukes. While the construct was undergoing theoretical refinement in psychoanalytic circles, it received very little attention in the experimental laboratory. What attention it did receive has come only in recent years. When this attention finally occurred, a mass of experimental errors and misinterpretations were committed. These difficulties still plague the scientific understanding of the construct. For example, from the repression notion one can deduce the hypothesis that with ego-involvement fewer interrupted (failed) tasks should be recallable. The first major study to test this idea used incorrectly a criterion of the *ratio* of interrupted to completed task recall. The findings that the ratio was changed [actually due to increase in recall of completed (successful) tasks] were incorrectly attributed to changes in interrupted task recall. The results were thus incorrectly interpreted as supporting the notion of repression. As another example, the repression notion would suggest that taboo words may not be perceived readily (perceptual defense). However, there was the problem of distinguishing between a person not perceiving a word vs. perceiving it but not wishing to say it. Only since the present book has been published has this problem been solved adequately.

To complete the book, hypnotic phenomena are described by Sarbin. Even more than repression, these phenomena have suffered from lack of research. Perhaps even more than repression they bear the possibility of having great theoretical significance when more fully understood. As the authors point out, hypnosis has received a series of theoretical constructions already. It is unlikely, however, that even the most current theories of hypnosis will be adequate when further explorations are made.

Psychology in the Making is a rich book—not in breadth but in scholarly perspective on selected topics. It tells of some places where psychology has been. I am not sure that it tells where psychology is going. What are the answers to the complex nature of language structure? How does the human brain change with any one single learning event? How does it store so much? What are the crucial laws which distinguish human from lower animal behavior? What are the etiologies and effective treatments of various psychotic conditions? What

are the behavioral factors which contribute to severe economic depression? What are the effective and controllable factors of human behavior which lead to war and peace?

Will psychologists be present to help answer any of these questions? This book does not tell us. However, it is a good book, and I will want to keep it.

RUE L. CROMWELL

George Peabody College for Teachers

Soviet Education: Anton Makarenko and the Years of Experiment. By James Bowen. (Madison, Wis.: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1962. Pp. 232. \$5.00.)

The most casual educational visitor to the Soviet Union cannot fail to be impressed by the thoroughgoing reverence commanded by the name Anton Makarenko. At any school and teacher training institute the "theories and experimentation" of Makarenko are lauded and his portrait is often seen hanging with other Russian educational heroes, such as Ushinsky and Krupskaya. It is no understatement that he has been given a favored place as "the outstanding Soviet pedagogue." His stature would suggest that he was the John Dewey of Russia (perhaps a dubious simile when considering the low status that Dewey now holds in Soviet educational circles) but one which best establishes his reputation amongst his own people. Yet in spite of the pre-eminence of Makarenko and the hold he has amongst Soviet educational psychologists and "sociologists," his name is virtually unknown in the west. The name of Pestalozzi is better known amongst American educators though he predates Makarenko by nearly a century. Both had in common their love of waifs, and orphans, the juvenile castoffs of war. Both established "collectives" for their youngsters and rose to international fame by their efforts in rehabilitating and training their charges. The story of Pestalozzi and his schools at Yverdun, Switzerland are now part of the fabric of educational history with philosophical roots stretching out into every American school today. The account of Makarenko, who worked with the *besprizorniki* the "homeless or neglected children," from 1920-1935 is not so well known. Makarenko has had his publicists in the west and many competent writers on Soviet educa-

tion have endeavored to bring his writings to the attention of their colleagues and students. James Bowen is the latest but assuredly not the last researcher who has endeavored to put Makarenko into educational orbit. His book should go far to encourage the reading of Makarenko's three principal works, all readily available in English translation *The Road to Life, Learning to Live* and *A Book for Parents*. This reviewer was told on a recent visit to Russia by the manager of a state bookstore specializing in English language material, that the majority of foreign visitors from the west ask only for this well known trilogy of Makarenko's works. He said "There is continual demand for his work though few foreigners realize that he is dead now, since twenty years."

Mr. Bowen's work is a skilful treatise using essentially the three works mentioned above and it should be read with them as an analytic interpretative guide. The author guards himself against the pitfalls of illicit comparative analysis. Perhaps, because his educational background is essentially Australian rather than American, he may be better able to appreciate the respective worths of the two "outstanding giants in social-educational reconstruction"—namely Dewey and Makarenko. He evaluates them within the framework of their respective social and political settings. Mr. Bowen's final chapter provides the key to understanding Makarenko's educational contribution and a particular paragraph illustrates the scholarly tolerance with which author Bowen guides his readers' evaluation of the Russian pedagogue.

"There is no doubt that, relative to the goals of the Soviet system, Makarenko was eminently successful, and that his educational system was more than just a psychology . . . criticism that we in the west can make must of necessity arise from a consideration of its applicability to our own society. In rejecting Makarenko for the west, we do so because of the fundamental assumptions upon which his education was based. Just so could the Soviet Union reject our educational theories as inadequate."

It is nearly a quarter of a century since Makarenko reached his publishing peak, though today his popularity in Soviet educational circles remains even higher. The so-called cultural lag in the transmission of foreign educational philosophies and practices is very much evident in the knowledge we have of Makarenko's work. James Bowen's readable, documented and most useful work should go some distance in encouraging the wider dissemination of Makarenko's work. If for no other reason

the work of this staunch exponent of basic Marxist educational doctrines should be examined in conjunction with the contributions of John Dewey. Their common interests were many, their philosophies divergent, but their posthumous reputation is contrastable with both receiving increased attention today by their disciples and critics.

STEWART FRASER

George Peabody College for Teachers

Supervision: A Synthesis of Thought and Action. By William H. Lucio and John E. McNeil. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962. Pp. 282. \$6.50.)

This book approaches supervision from the authors' viewpoint of the supervisor as an educational statesman. Their definition of the role of the supervisory statesman is that he finds his goal and places his commitment in the clearly defined purposes of the school itself, not in narrow, practical aims set in haphazard fashion.

In developing this approach the authors place the historical functions of supervision in perspective to the changing nature of our society and the newer insights as well as theoretic formulations that have been developing in the several disciplines of the social sciences. They claim that the statesman supervisor must be a human relations expert but must be aware that human relations are means to more broadly conceived ends and that they must not be ends in and of themselves. Thus the concept of supervision by objectives becomes a challenging concept that all administrators and supervisors need to examine as they carry out their responsibilities for education in a democracy.

DAVID J. MULLEN

George Peabody College for Teachers

Teacher Education: A Reappraisal. Edited by Elmer R. Smith. (New York: Harper and Row, 1962. Pp. 213. \$4.00.)

This reappraisal of teacher education was developed during the course of an eight-weeks conference convened at the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences at Palo Alto, California in the summer of 1960. The conferees included persons actively involved

in teacher education projects supported by The Fund for the Advancement of Education, staff members of the Fund, and Ralph W. Tyler, director of the Center. The group, convened at the invitation of Alvin C. Eurich, Vice President of The Fund, sought answers for the following questions:

1. Is there anything of essential importance to a teacher in the way of teaching beyond knowledge of the subject he teaches?
2. If so, what are these essentials?
3. How best can these essentials be imparted or acquired?
4. How can you tell when a teacher possesses these essentials?

In replying to the first question the conferees were in agreement that there were things of essential importance to a teacher beyond knowledge of the subject he teaches. In their efforts to specify some of these essentials, the conference initially pursued three lines of inquiry:

First, an effort was made to identify in the behavioral sciences certain concepts and bodies of evidence relevant to school problems . . .

Second, an effort was made to identify a series of significant competencies which might be required of a teacher in the act of teaching.

Third, an effort was made to identify a number of important educational tasks that the teacher must carry on in order to develop high-quality learning.

Editor Smith points out that each of these single approaches was in turn abandoned in favor of a more comprehensive approach which was developed around the following five topics:

1. Liberal education.
2. Specialized knowledge of the subject to be taught.
3. Professional knowledge which includes understanding of the role of the school, the contributions of the behavioral sciences, and an appreciation of the inter-related components of the educational process.
4. Practice teaching under adequate supervision.
5. Unifying theory.

What began, then, as an attempt to re-think the problems of teacher education within a fresh and different frame of reference, had to be abandoned in favor of a more conventional approach to the problem. The report consists of a series of essays developed by different con-

ference members, that in general explore the areas specified by the five listed topics. No real synthesis of the differing points of view of the various writers is presented nor are the interrelationships between the different topics developed in any detail. Indeed, it is doubtful if such a treatment of the conference proceedings was possible and the abandonment of the initial approach testifies to the difficulty of such an effort.

Within the limitations listed above are developed a series of essays that explore current educational problems in a variety of ways and from differing points of view.

The contents of the volume appear in the following order:

<i>Chapter Title</i>	<i>Author</i>
The Role of the School	John Walton
Applications of the Behavioral Sciences	Ralph W. Tyler
Specialized Knowledge	Elmer R. Smith
The Learning Essentials	Elmer R. Smith
Practice in Teaching	Judson Shaplin
The Study and Practice of Teaching	John Walton
The Need for a Unifying Theory of Teacher Education	Paul Woodring
Educational Decision Making and Teacher Education	John I. Goodlad
A Scheme for Teacher Education	Robert N. Bush
Planning for More Effective Teaching	Alvin C. Eurich

Few readers will fail to find one or more of these essays stimulating and provocative. For the reviewer, the piece by Dr. Shaplin explored with great clarity some of the complex relationships between practice and the development of teaching effectiveness.

In introducing this section of the book Dr. Shaplin points out that individuals holding the view that practice in teaching is unnecessary tend to, "underestimate the complexity of the process of teaching and the learning expected as a result of teaching, and set low standards for the performance of individual teachers." In listing the assumptions undergirding the justification of practice as a part of teaching, the section dealing with the effect of "stress conditions" on the amount

learned by the teacher with a full teaching load is particularly well done.

A further analysis of the "Varieties of Practice" is followed by a section devoted to a discussion of the argument that "Teaching is an Art."

A final section contains "Suggestions for the Organization of Practice." This part of the chapter is an intensely practical analysis of some of the present difficulties besetting the implementation by colleges of practice in teaching.

The chapter by Robert Bush will have especial appeal for those interested in the theoretical aspects of teaching. In general, the model presented by Dr. Bush attempts to spell out the relationships between General and Liberal Education, Specialized Education and Professional Education which are listed as the essential content. The diagrams employed in illustration of the model serve to clarify one strongly held position on teacher education. The section is, however, too brief to treat some of the really vexing theoretical questions involved.

In terms of fresh ideas about teacher education, the reviewer feels that the chapter by John Goodlad on "Educational Decision-Making and Teacher Education" contains the greatest amount of new material. Dr. Goodlad points out that the general educational curricula of higher education make little provision for studying the process of decision making at the societal, the institutional and instructional levels, and he proceeds in his analyses to build a case for the inclusion of such a study in the education of teachers.

In the chapter by John Walton, "The Study and Practice of Teaching," the phenomena of the discontinuity between systematic study and practice is examined. Through the use of analogies with medicine, law, business, politics, and art. Dr. Walton exposes a series of relationships that appear to have a direct bearing on the place of practice in teacher education.

The final chapter, "Planning for More Effective Teaching," by Alvin Eurich briefly summarizes recent developments and trends in American education, discusses the implications of these developments for change in teacher education, and specifies some requirements that must be met for teaching to become truly professionalized.

Dr. Eurich concludes by saying that two changes of attitude will be

required of the educational profession: an adoption of a favorable attitude toward change and an acceptance of professional responsibility to improve through ingenuity and innovation.

The skillful editorial work by Elmer Smith as well as his chapters on "Specialized Knowledge" and the "Learning Essentials" add much to the general usefulness of the book.

Paul Woodring's delineation of the need for a unifying theory of teacher education specifies many areas in which greater depth of understanding is sorely needed.

Lastly, the contribution by Ralph Tyler consists in the main of an outline of the concepts, generalizations, and methods of inquiry developed in the behavioral sciences that may be useful in the education of teachers. This brief taxonomy could well be expanded into the units of work for several courses devoted to such study.

The reviewer feels that this publication contains a reappraisal that will make a difference in teacher education and that the eight weeks spent by the conferees at Palo Alto will turn out to be important ones for the future of education in the United States.

DAVID TURNEY

George Peabody College for Teachers

Corrected Book Note

The Ugly Duckling. Palazzo, Tony. Doubleday, 1962. Unp. Nursery Classic.

Tony Palazzo has taken a little more liberty than usual in the adaptation of this story. As usual his illustrations are not out of this world, but young children are enthralled by both story and pictures.

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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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MAY, 1963

NUMBER 6

Editorial . . .

A Teachers College

The function of Peabody for eighty-eight uninterrupted years has been the improvement of teaching in, and in the better direction of the schools—at first in the South, then with a radius gradually extending. That was the motive of its founding and its explicit assignment; its acceptance of its obligation has been wholehearted. Its performance has answered favorably the charge and challenge made it.

The word *Peabody* has become a teaching word. It points unerringly to the schoolroom. The imagery it evokes is of the superintendent, the principal, the supervisor, and the teacher, all working together, to make learning a more satisfying and strengthening experience for those taught. Peabody affirms that the teacher is the missionary of established truth. Out of such basic materials as numbers, and words; out of the varied phenomena of nature and human nature, and out of a man's compelling desire to identify, understand and use them, teachers find their mission. Peabody exists to help them perform that mission.

The College understands well that the teacher must be an educated person. Without a sense of history, the onward movements of a human world and the sequence of its eras, the teacher's lessons would be left incomplete; without a profound respect for the dignity and majesty of language she would be left, to that degree, unable to communicate the lessons of literature and the art inherent in them. So, she must have a basic acquaintance with history, with literature, with mathematics, with science, with art, and with the other major fields. These are the stuff

from which learning is derived. It is Peabody's obligation to see that its students form the acquaintance of the fundamental areas of human understanding.

But Peabody must also offer courses which we ineptly have christened "education." It is the part of these courses to gather learning into its proper focus, to establish its coherency and to discover the most valid kinships between minds and materials, to make lessons, not easy but more exciting and of more substance.

Peabody offers a wide range of courses on the assumption that they give symmetry and completeness to the student's life and concept of teaching. But it also offers a systematized curriculum whose function it is to make teaching more desirable, more pleasurable, and more helpful in the advancement of human welfare.

Peabody has been, is, and will continue to be a Teachers' College. That is an honorable continuity.

Conflicting Pressures: The Educator and Politics

ROBERT E. CLEARY

George Peabody College for Teachers

The great majority of American educators have been extremely careful to avoid involvement in politics, or even the appearance of political involvement, for many decades. In recent years, however, a gradually increasing number of administrators and teachers—in trying to improve their schools—have plunged rather deeply into political affairs and political maneuver. This paper will focus on the basic relationship between formal education and politics that has led to this changed state of affairs. It will also explore some of the reasons the educators beginning to participate in the political process are often ineffective in attaining their goals. Finally, it will conclude with some suggested guidelines for action on the part of educators becoming involved in politics.

The starting point of this exploration will be the interdependence of formal education and politics in the United States. Politics and education are inexorably intertwined, with each requiring the assistance of the other. The continued existence of the polity depends on the success of education in preparing the individual citizen to live up to his potentialities so he is able to play as useful a role as possible in society; while formal education depends upon politics to determine not only what programs will be supported financially but also the level at which they will be maintained.

While a number of educators recognize this basic relationship, a great many seem to be unable to understand it, for they fail to conduct themselves according to its implications. Too many schoolmen regard politics as something distinct from formal government that should be avoided and can be avoided by responsible citizens. This view rests on a failure to realize the importance of political maneuver in the formulation of public policy in the American system of government. As a result of such attitudes, however, questions with important implications

for the future of formal education in the United States are being decided by non-educators on grounds that largely ignore the interests of education as well as its rightful role in American society.

An excellent example of this point lies in the recently approved bill providing for federal financial assistance for the construction and the expansion of educational television stations. Supervisory power over this prime *educational tool* is to be placed directly in the office of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, and not in the Office of Education. Under the law the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare is to consult the Federal Communications Commission in administering the ETV program, but there is no requirement that the Commissioner of Education be consulted. As a result the influence of educators on an educational issue is likely to be quite limited.

A second example of the lack of influence by schoolmen over educational issues is provided by the current spate of courses on Communism being added to the curricula recommended by the departments of education in various states. It is instructive to note that the impetus for these courses did not come primarily from educators, but was mainly supplied by the American Bar Association. Once again the basic determinations on a question of vital educational importance were made primarily by non-educators rather than educators because of the failure of the latter to understand the operation of the American political system.

This situation is due in large measure, I believe, to the traditional suspicion of government in the United States coupled with a realization of the absolute necessity of protecting the intellectual independence as well as the standards of the schools. It is clear to us all that education can too easily become indoctrination if it is controlled by unscrupulous individuals. Working on the assumption that the danger of tyranny is more acute if a governmental official who already controls other instruments of power is also able to gain control over the school system, a majority of educators have attempted to steer completely clear of political contact and political involvement. Thus many American schoolmen refuse to attempt to work through the political system even for the betterment of the educational system.

This reasoning ignores the fact that public education is almost completely dependent on government for its financing. While it is true

that the major source of support for the typical American public school is local government rather than the more powerful national government, I have strong doubts regarding the myth that local politicians are less likely to attempt to interfere with education than are national politicians. In fact, I suspect the opposite is the case, with local governmental interference with education being quite apparent in many communities. After all, removing books from library shelves because a member of a local school board has rather limited horizons is not really conducive to a desirable intellectual atmosphere.

Nevertheless, regardless of this issue, it is becoming more apparent every day that local governments can no longer support the public schools. As long ago as 1948 Seymour Harris advocated a comprehensive program of federal aid, pointing out in *How Shall We Pay For Education?* that state and local revenues were not keeping pace with the needs of the schools. This and other proposals like it have propelled the educational community into the mainstream of American politics, where political conservatives are fighting with every ounce of their strength to halt what they regard as unwarranted intrusions of the federal government into local problems and political liberals are actively promoting the expansion of federal power. This general ideological struggle between the forces of the right in American society—wanting desperately to limit the federal government's power—and those of the left—desiring to increase that power—has completely submerged the question of how the best education can be provided in the current nationwide debate over federal aid. (Race and religion as factors in this dispute also have more influence than purely educational considerations.)

One example of the subordinate position played by purely educational influences may be seen in the fight over President Kennedy's aid to education proposals in 1961. It may be recalled that these proposals—providing for a general program of federal aid for school construction and teachers' salaries—passed the Senate that year but never reached a floor vote in the House of Representatives because they failed of passage in the House Rules Committee. The key committee vote in this case was 8 opposed and 7 in favor, the proposal thus failing by the narrow margin of one Congressman's vote. On what bases did the fifteen individuals concerned in this instance decide how

they would cast their ballots?

Let's take a brief look at the House Committee on Rules in an attempt to answer this question. The Committee is composed of 10 Democrats and 5 Republicans. The Republican members as of 1961 are rather easy to categorize, all 5 being Protestant, representatives of rural districts, and political conservatives. It is much more difficult to generalize about the Committee Democrats, for they were split three ways. Five were moderate or liberal in politics and Protestant in religion, three were Catholics, and two (the Committee's chairman, Howard W. Smith of Virginia, and Rep. William M. Colmer of Mississippi) were Southern conservatives and Protestant. The two conservative Southerners were unalterably opposed to the Kennedy education program on two counts—they considered it in violation of states' rights, and they feared the possibility of such a measure being eventually used to hasten desegregation. Here, then, were two hard-core Democratic votes against the Kennedy aid to education proposals.

Turning next to the Catholics on the Committee, these three individuals were generally opposed to the bill because it failed to include parochial schools within the scope of its major provisions. Nevertheless two of them did agree to support the bill on the grounds that the establishment of the principle of federal aid for teachers' salaries and school construction was the important thing in 1961. This left one Catholic, Rep. James J. Delaney of Brooklyn, to join Judge Smith and Rep. Colmer in opposition to the bill. The five other negative votes came from the five Republican members of the Rules Committee, these gentlemen voting unanimously against the administration's aid to education proposals. The basis for the Republican decision was not education, or even race, or religion, but states' rights. In other words, no Republican member of the Rules Committee heeded the somewhat confused educational voices in his district that were urging him to support the aid to education bill. Instead a solid front was presented to defend the conservative position.

Another case that illustrates the lack of importance of educational considerations in the making of public policy concerning education occurred in 1962 when both houses of Congress passed bills providing for federal assistance for *higher* education. The proposals, however, differed on key points. The Senate measure—passed in early February

—provided for grants for scholarships as well as for loans for building construction, while the House bill—passed on January 30—had no scholarship provisions but included authorization for loans *and* grants for construction purposes. Conservatives opposed both versions. The House bill also engendered opposition on religious grounds because of the possible participation of Catholic colleges in the construction grant program. Citizen concern over the proper role of government in American society as well as its relation to religion was reflected in the joint House-Senate conference committee that was appointed to work out a compromise bill. The conference committee spent very little time debating the needs of education; its members concentrated instead on the non-educational questions. After negotiations dragging on all spring and summer a compromise was finally reached. House conferees agreed to limit construction grants to science and library buildings only—a program that was justified on grounds of national defense—to meet the religious question, while the Senators changed their scholarship proposal into a loan program in an attempt to satisfy conservative opposition. Nevertheless, a Republican-Southern Democratic coalition formed in the House when the compromise was submitted to that body for approval and by a 214-186 vote killed the entire program. This step, condemned by many educators, was of course supported by the conservative and religious opposition. The opponents of the compromise—strangely enough, however—included the major educational lobby, the National Education Association, which urged recommitment of the bill because it included construction grants for denominational colleges.

Thus in 1961 and again in 1962 questions of vital educational importance were decided largely on non-educational grounds. In both years a limited number of schoolmen took part in the struggle over the formulation of public policy, but most educators exhibited a basic unwillingness to participate in the political process. This reluctance, coupled with a general lack of familiarity with the methods of politics on the part of American schoolmen, has led the typical teacher in the United States to forfeit his right to a powerful voice in the determination of educational questions. Nevertheless, educational policy is inexorably caught up in the maze of practical politics, and it is high time educators as a whole recognized this fact and learned their way

around the maze in order to better advance their aims.

After all, educators can have the same influences on their congressmen as are open to the general citizen—they can attempt to influence mass public opinion, they can exercise the franchise, and they can make use of special interest groups to advance their goals. With regard to the first point, most teachers are not in a position to influence public opinion on a group basis (although they can write letters to their newspapers) but they do have the opportunity to influence neighbors and friends on an individual basis. There still remains the problem of communicating their desires to their congressmen, however, and there are two main methods by which this can best be done. Personally-composed letters to representatives is one, but far more effective is support of an organized interest group that is skilled at influencing congressmen. Education has such groups, including the National Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Educators should join these organizations and—more than this—should work within them to influence their policies as well as through them to influence the making of public policy on education. At present, the policy positions of leading educational groups are at variance with one another on the question of federal aid. The American Federation of Teachers supports such aid without qualification, while the N.E.A. supports the general principle of federal aid but opposes assistance to private institutions. To complicate the picture further, the National School Boards Association—with its heavily conservative membership—opposes an expanded program of federal aid at the present time. Thus the educational interests are split on a basic question of prime importance to the schools and as a result their influence on the decision of this question has been quite limited. Federal aid is being treated in Congress largely as another problem with regard to which liberals and conservatives take their positions by rote and refight the same old battles, instead of one that will vitally affect the future of American education.

Given the importance of group pressure in the American political system, U.S. educators will probably be able to carry the day on most decisions of vital importance to schools *if* they can come to general agreement on policy and then work knowledgeably through the political

process to implement their proposals. Although many American educators have often been unwilling to actively participate in the political system, their organizations have gradually begun to take public stands on issues of educational importance that have become caught up in the public policymaking process. These decisions have often been made by a few individuals according to rather limited considerations, however, rather than as part of an overall consideration of the needs of formal education in American society and the role of the government in meeting these needs. Special interest pressure—based on religious, racial, and ideological considerations—have at times dominated these decisions and various educational groups have taken directly conflicting stands on vital issues as a result. It is incumbent upon American schoolmen to formulate a comprehensive, broad-gauge policy on the desirable relationship of government and formal education that can be supported by a united front of education organizations willing and able to work through the political process in order to secure implementation of the program. It is only in this way that educational questions in the United States today can be decided on the basis of a coherent plan aimed at allowing the schools to perform their rightful role in preparing American citizens to play a useful role in society.

Stones on the Road

WALDO R. BANKS
Administrative Counselor
Public Schools, Gary, Indiana

A Study of Urgent Educational Problems of Today With Some Solutions

In listing the following problems in the major areas of education—elementary, secondary, and college—the writer intends no evaluation in order of importance. Problems, after all, are themselves conditioned and defined by specific environment, and what may be a major problem in one community may be a focal point for cooperative action in another. In education, then, as in other sciences, the hypothetical and abstract statement of a problem can in no way be considered a definition of actual conditions; the value of hypothetical statements, on the other hand, must not be underestimated since the hypothesis itself often serves to sharpen perception of potential troubles, or at least provide a philosophical springboard for the solution of actual rather than theoretical difficulties.

Most problems in elementary school education—indeed, in secondary and college education as well—fall into three broad categories: school-student; school-parent; school-faculty. Obviously, these are in no way mutually exclusive; indeed, they are so closely related that separation can be made only for theoretical purposes. Within each of these admittedly artificial divisions, furthermore, are innumerable subdivisions which, again, are very closely tied together. Understanding, then, that we may give educational problems “by themselves” only for purposes of an exercise, we may note the following issues:

I. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

A. *The problem of grading.* Perhaps no other aspect of elementary education causes as much community tension as the “marks” that Johnny or Joan display at fixed intervals during the school semester.

This tension arises from various causes: an unhealthy sense of com-

petition among children too young to be placed in a situation of quantitative evaluation; disappointment among parents; lack of parental understanding of grading methods employed by the school; failure on the part of the school authorities to take into account special potentials or liabilities, or progress in improving on an original handicap. Certainly grading is always a "live" issue, and educators are often to blame for a failure to understand the point of view of the parent and public. It is vitally important for educators to realize that an over-specialized vocabulary, when explaining grading policies to the public, may cause more damage in community-school relations than no explanation at all.

B. *The invisible male teacher.* It is a paradox that, at an age when most young children are deeply involved with a father-image for guidance and example, they are placed in an environment (for a good part of their day!) controlled all but exclusively by feminine instruction. "Daddy," after all, usually has a vital share in the home environment; the source of palship and discipline, he is both boys and girls. Elementary education in this country, however, is almost totally feminine, an artificial condition emphasized by sociologists and psychologists as a major contributing factor to the collective personality of Americans. Certainly there is no sound reason why men in the field of elementary education should concentrate almost exclusively on administration rather than teaching; education itself, and the children for whom education exists, are considerable losers.

C. *Development of the aesthetic sense.* Elementary school art classes too often are set up on the basis of a sort of psychological enema, in which the child is given a blank piece of paper and a few crayons and proceeds to purge himself of ill-defined and vacuous emotional visions. This is too simple. It is part of the teacher's job, after all, not only to give a child the opportunity to express himself, but to help him develop a self to express. It is in the elementary grades that the aesthetic sense can be given its first, perhaps its sharpest impetus; and this impetus requires the stimulation of young imaginations no less than the opportunity for "drawing." The work that appears on a child's paper will usually reflect the skill and enthusiasm of the teacher in stimulating the pictures actually seen with the mind's eye; teachers

engaged in leading an art exercise must realize that "self-expression" is not to be equated with passivity on their own parts.

While each of these problems certainly would require extensive discussion to reach any substantial conclusion, I feel that the problem of the "invisible male teacher" is too often neglected. Unlike other areas in the English-speaking world, America tends to equate "school teacher" with "woman"; indeed, the phrase alone usually leads to automatic assumption that the individual involved is female. Sociologists and psychologists, including Margaret Mead, stress this fact as one reason for the "female dominated" American man; they add, furthermore, that the near total exclusion of men from the ranks of elementary school teachers is no less harmful, in basic psychological terms, for girls. Most American children, in other words, are faced with both a home and school environment shaped to a large extent by female authority; while this to some extent is inevitable in the family, it certainly is not inevitable in the school.

I do not mean, in any way, to imply that women do not make fine teachers; what they do is too obvious to require a demonstration. The fact remains, however, that young boys and girls ought not be deprived of male leadership to the extent that they are now deprived of it in the American school system. The dangers of "momism" has long been recognized in England, where the equivalent of American elementary schools certainly provide a respectable career for men.

There are several reasons for the "invisible male teacher." Perhaps the primary reason, of course, is financial. For some reason American communities have tended to assume that the "lower levels" of education requires less skill, less preparation, and less authority on the part of the teacher, despite the fact that modern psychology makes it abundantly clear that the elemental-age is a vital formative period for every child. Elementary teaching, in other words, has tended to be regarded as a sort of temporary career for young girls waiting to be married, or as a part-time job held by a woman to supplement her husband's income. This is a dangerous concept, reducing a vitally important educational task to the status of "extra work." The salaries, at any rate, of elementary teaching reflect this attitude; in the vast number of communities within the United States, no man can decently support his own family and remain in elementary education—not un-

less he "goes into administration."

Some very questionable assumptions about "maternal instinct" also enter the picture. Many people see the elementary school teacher as a sort of "substitute mother" during the school day. The teacher's entire problem is different; the problem is one of developing the individuals within a group, and certainly the relationship between a teacher and 30 children can not be equated with the relationship of a mother and her own child. Indeed, even the best of mothers, placed in a room with 30 children, is likely to find that the methods of the livingroom will not quite do as methods for the classroom.

My belief, in short, is that men can and should have a greater role in elementary teaching, although I must admit to some trepidation in making the suggestion, since a few of the fair-sex may resent this intrusion of men into what is so often considered a province of women. Give elementary teachers adequate, not merely supplementary incomes; give them the respect due a professional position so important in shaping the future of children; and men will no longer feel that their own future in elementary education must be limited to administration.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

A. *High School is for everybody.* Modern civilization is, to an enormous extent, a technological and mechanical society. In spite of this fact, however, vocational high schools are still often known as "trade schools"—a phrase which remains much of the nature of an unsavory epithet. By the same token, secondary school students who are not enrolled in a college prep course, are often regarded as the subterreaneans of the educational world. Both these attitudes, precisely because our society does depend for its very survival on a highly developed technology and a well-trained mechanical and commercial working force, are obsolete. Secondary school educators have made great strides in developing the concept of the high school as a resource for building the personal potentials of boys and girls in all fields, rather than forcing many into academic studies for which they are not suited and in which they are not interested. Much, however remains to be done. The high school must build citizens, and develop skills no less than train minds; the overwhelming majority of students

do not go on to college, and any educational system which victimizes them because of misguided emphasis on academic or college prep work, is failing both the student and his community. Indeed, one reason why so many colleges complain about the caliber of the freshmen sent to them by secondary schools, is precisely the fact that social attitudes toward vocational training are in many ways obsolete. Given a sound basis in the understanding of his community, culture and art; the vocational student will become a valuable asset to the human resources of his nation. It is this attitude which must be stimulated.

B. *Alumni in the urban community.* The community of an urban high school resembles, in many ways, the community of a small town. Certainly there may be a strong sense of community identity, even to a local newspaper and chamber of commerce. Very often, furthermore, families live in the community through several generations. Johnny may go to the very same school from which his dad graduated. Because of the considerable percentage of non-mobile population, urban high schools would be well advised to develop a full alumni program, including alumni bulletins, news letter, and columns in the school newspaper. Alumni, for the urban no less than for the rural school, may be used as a valuable community-relations resource; it is my belief that urban high school administrators have done far too little in this respect.

C. *Language study: design for use.* The study of modern foreign languages was for many years limited to the academic courses; and even here was regarded more as a sort of curriculum embellishment than a practical necessity. It is the belief of this writer that a practical knowledge of at least one modern European language is essential for many high school students, including those who do not plan to go on to college. It is a truism that the world today has grown smaller; this truism, however, also applies to commercial and mechanical no less than intellectual civilization.

It has long been a characteristic of European education that students, whether or not they ever reach a university, are multilingual. Their knowledge of language, of course, was necessary because a continuous commercial, economical and political (no less cultural) exchange in a limited area made linguistic insulation quite impractical.

The businessman in Hamburg, Germany, in other words, would know French as a matter of course—and so would his clerk. In America, on the other hand, for so many years isolated from the rest of the world by great distances such language knowledge was a luxury.

This isolation is rapidly being destroyed; the world itself is a close-knit cultural and political and economic organism, and this closeness exists despite ideological tensions. We are, in short, in the midst of a revolution in communication and economic relationships; precisely because of this fact, the neglect of language study, or the relegation of such study to theoretical academic exercises, is a serious weakness in American education. Americans in business, in technology, in arts or sciences, must no longer be crippled by a near total lack of communication tools.

The major difficulty, of course, is that languages are taught in many high schools in much the same way it was taught—or rather suffered by grandfather. Memorization followed the theoretical repetition for examination purposes are no more effective in language than other studies. At any rate, I would suggest that the problem be attacked in two general directions: first, that advanced language study, with emphasis on conversation and practical application, be made available to all students, regardless of whether they are preparing for college. There may, of course, be certain sub-divisions in the actual study; a student preparing for a commercial career, for example, may be far more interested in a language course emphasizing his general area than one in which literary works obscure even specialists who read for theoretical improvement.

The academic student, however, is often no better off than his fellows in the matter actually learning European languages. In both the arts and sciences, language knowledge is a practical skill rather than an aesthetic accomplishment; by the time a student reaches college, his reading and speaking knowledge of the language he has studied should have gone far beyond the primer level. Emphasis, in short, must be on use and application; to this end, language study in the high school should reach beyond text to original material at least a year before graduation.

It is my belief that many educators underestimate both the interest and potential of high school students in foreign language. Properly

taught, in accordance with developing principles of methodology, language study can be something more than an obstacle-course in memorization; in the present course of world affairs, at any rate, such study must be considered an essential part of high school education. Citizenship, after all, is rapidly becoming citizenship of the world no less than citizenship of a particular community and nation.

III. PROBLEMS IN COLLEGE PERSONNEL

A. *The aging graduate student.* According to statistics recently published in *The Graduate Student* (Boston University), the average age for completion of course work and qualifying examination for a doctorate in the Humanities is 29-31, with the thesis often not completed for several additional years. The "brand new" full-time teacher, in other words, begins his career at an age when other professions offer substantial advantages in terms of status, security, and financial position. It is precisely this long delay which exercises a demoralizing influence on advanced students, and contributes to the lack of trained university teachers. Certainly it must be seriously doubted whether, after proving himself for four years or more in seminars, a man ought to be evaluated solely on the basis of examination, which is itself to be followed by a thesis project. There exists a definite roadblock in advanced education, a roadblock created partly by vested interests who seem to resent any increase in the numbers of doctorate holders, despite the fact that skyrocketing enrollment and population makes such an increase essential.

B. *Teaching methods on the college level.* It is a truism that knowledge in a specialized field does not necessarily make a man a good teacher. Despite this universally recognized fact, however, teaching method is all but ignored on many American campuses. Many American universities have hundreds of men and women with little or no training in classroom procedure, and they are given full responsibility for two or more regular classes; these classes, furthermore, are usually on the freshman level—a task which is perhaps most difficult of all college teaching assignments. Granted that lack of qualified instructors may make a "Teaching Associate" or "Teaching Assistant" program necessary, it is my belief that no graduate student ought to

be given full responsibility for regularly constituted college classes until he has had a modicum of methods training.

C. *The scholar as teacher.* Although much has been said about the lack of financial motivation for the demanding career of college teaching, the policy of "publish or perish" so often pursued by university administrators is perhaps the most serious cause of faculty demoralization. The confusion, indeed, is basic: administrators seem unable to define clearly the role of the university itself—that is, whether the university is to be considered as a community of scholars working in their particular fields of specialization, or as an institution for advanced learning, and advanced teaching. The science of teaching, at any rate, ought not be regarded as a means for the patronage of scholarly work. That it is too often so regarded is obvious enough from the widespread problem of prominent researchers who frankly admit that they have no interest in teaching as such; from the fact that promotion is usually granted not on the basis of performance as teacher, but rather on the basis of publication as scholars; and from the complaint of many college men and women that their prominent instructors are more interested in producing books than students. Certainly, universities must clarify their position, which in many cases seems to define instruction as a sort of honorarium to be awarded for scholarly articles.

College students, of course, have a right to expect that their instructors be experts in their particular fields. This does not mean, however, that teaching can in any way be replaced by scholarly work. The fact that an instructor has published a dozen volumes may be impressive for purposes of public relations, and valuable as a contribution to specialized knowledge to the young men and women sitting before him in his classroom, however, he fails his primary task: that of university teacher.

Many colleges have come to recognize that the entire concept of "publish or perish" is dangerous for both the faculty and student body. The students themselves are often victimized as instructors competing for honors and promotions, neglect actual teaching; the faculty is faced with a perpetual insecurity ironic in a profession offering security as a substitute for more immediate financial gains.

Los Angeles City College, for example, in a brochure explaining teacher policies, emphasizes the fact that “teaching is an art in its own right”—that faculty members are welcome to publish original work, but that such publications is in no way the sole criteria for evaluating faculty members. The student, says this brochure, has a right to demand instruction; unless a man is willing to be a teacher he should not, no matter how brilliant in the laboratory or library, be given the sole responsibility for student careers.

A possible solution may lie in the direction of Institutes for Advanced Study, in which prominent scholars may be at least in great part freed from the burden of classroom work. Under such a system men and women able and willing to devote themselves to the communication of knowledge, would not be penalized for failure to “publish”; the teacher, after all, is an interpreter of knowledge, not necessarily a creator of it. And the university would better fulfill a major function: the communication of such knowledge to the students themselves.

Reorganization in Public Education

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While the aims of American education have changed drastically since 1800, there has been little basic change in the organization of public education during this period. The most significant changes have been found in the establishment of the junior high school and the public community college. The junior high school, usually providing instruction from grades seven through nine altered the basic plan in many school districts from an 8-4 to a 6-3-3 sequence, and aimed primarily to reduce the dropout rate among teenagers in public schools. The aims of the community college, a two-year institution providing instruction beyond the high school level, was bifurcated: it provided terminal education for students wishing to enter a wide range of professions and trades, from medical technology to cosmetology, and it provided students wishing to continue their educations at a four-year college or university the opportunity to complete most of their general education requirements before transferring to the degree granting institution.

During the period when junior high schools and community colleges were burgeoning, the aims of American education were gradually shifting. The secondary school was now concerned not only with offering college preparatory courses, but also with providing education for all youth of secondary school age regardless of their ultimate educational or vocational objectives. By 1918, all states had compulsory attendance laws; and by 1950, six states required attendance until age eighteen, six required attendance until age seventeen, and the remaining states required attendance until age sixteen. School attendance has reached new peaks with the secondary school population doubling every decade. Courses in the classics, foreign languages, and pure sciences are in many areas being supplanted by courses in consumer education, distributive education, driver education, personal health, typewriting, business mathematics, and other courses of immediate practicality. Most secondary education is terminal; the dropout rate, especially

among sixteen year old students, is much higher than educators would like it to be.

As the United States presses more and more towards a technological society, fewer jobs are available to unskilled workers than ever before; and in the next quarter of a century, the unskilled worker will increasingly be a misfit in his society. Hence, it seems vital and urgent that positive steps be taken first to make school dropouts virtually nonexistent; second, to encourage specialized education beyond grade twelve; and third, to design a secondary school curriculum which will specifically equip the student who does not pursue his studies beyond high school to become a contributing member of society who will enjoy a greater degree of job security than recent high school graduates have.

In order to bring about the desired ends, a reorganization of public education is indicated. To begin with, students should begin school when they are five years old rather than when they are six. For the first four years of elementary school, they should be taught basic skills by one teacher and they should remain together as a group. However, grades five and six should follow a departmental system in schools large enough to make this possible. Ability grouping should be inaugurated at this age and students should be taught by teachers who, besides having an elementary school teaching certificate, have completed satisfactorily at least eighteen semester hours of college work in the academic field(s) which they teach. Teachers at this level should receive one salary increment for each subject in which they are qualified, with a maximum of three subjects.

Foreign languages should be stressed at this point, and for those who demonstrate in standardized aptitude tests an ability to proceed to such studies as algebra, geometry, astronomy, biology, chemistry, and perhaps physics, such courses should be made available. Work in English composition should be requisite for all students, and this work should be reinforced by the frequent assigning of written exercises in all other subjects.

Students would leave the elementary school at age eleven and would proceed to the middle school. All students except those preparing for college would be in the middle school from grade seven through grade ten. Examinations in the basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic

would be given at entrance, and those found deficient would be assigned to courses stressing these skills. Those who place well in the entrance examinations would be grouped by ability and would be encouraged to proceed as rapidly as possible in academic subjects. At the conclusion of grade nine, all college preparatory students would take a high school entrance examination and, upon passing it, would be promoted to high school. Those failing the examination would be permitted to repeat it at the conclusion of grade ten. Those failing it at this point would be barred from a college preparatory course and would be given extensive counseling so that they might be guided towards the preparation for a pursuit commensurate with their abilities. In effect, the bulk of those students preparing for college would complete middle school at age fourteen. They would then proceed to high school where they would remain through grade thirteen. Upon graduation they would have completed all of the general education requirements of a four-year college.

Those who did not pass the examination at the end of the ninth year of middle school, or those who did not elect to take it, would proceed to high school at the conclusion of grade ten and there would pursue either a terminal high school course, comprising grades eleven and twelve, or a combined high school-community college course which would be terminal at grade fourteen. Those in the terminal high school course would constitute the group which would normally have the highest dropout rate; however, with graduation scheduled at age seventeen, just one year beyond the school leaving age in most states, many students who would drop out when faced with the possibility of spending two additional years in high school, would now remain to graduate.

Those who pursued the terminal community college course would be graduated, normally, at age nineteen, having been trained in bookkeeping, office work, some phase of mechanical or industrial arts, hairdressing, cosmetology, police work, plumbing, electrical work, medical or dental technology, or any of a large number of other vocations. Many of these people would normally have terminated their educations at the conclusion of high school and would have entered the labor market as unskilled or semi-skilled workers. Under this program they are graduated at the age of nineteen prepared to enter

some occupational field as a skilled technician.

Students who left middle school at the end of grade nine would spend four years at what might be called the *continuing high school*. At the age of eighteen, they would be eligible to enter a college or university, having completed their general education requirements. They would be at the level approximately, of entering juniors in the present day college. Those who plan to continue to professional schools of law, medicine, theology, and the like, would spend two years at college in pre-professional training and would be granted a bachelor's degree upon the successful completion of their first year of professional school. Those who intended to enter professions requiring just a bachelor's degree, or those planning to proceed towards a master's or doctor's degree in some academic field, would spend three years in college, using the additional year for courses of general enrichment. Their college course might be accelerated to two years if they were to take two summer sessions of ten weeks each and if they were to carry a one-course overload during their four regular semesters in residence. Under a three-year plan, these students would normally be graduated at age twenty-one, under a two-year plan, at age twenty. This would mean that the average student would leave college one year earlier than he does today. As a result, the well-trained people who are most in demand today would enter the labor market one year earlier.

The program here proposed is feasible. It will be noted that in a period when school enrollments are sharply on the increase, the nation has fewer public school systems than at any time in recent years. This is attributable largely to the fact that consolidation of schools is taking place throughout the country. With this consolidation, the groundwork is being laid for the widespread growth of community colleges. Any high school with a graduating class of 150 students can support at least a community college which offers general education courses for those going on to degree granting institutions. The community college which offers vocational specialties would need a larger population to support it.

With an existing teacher shortage of over 200,000, the question of staffing may legitimately be raised. Clearly the shortage of teachers is going to grow worse as the population expands and the unpleasant

reality which school personnel must face is that each teacher is going to have to serve more students. This can be done effectively if a teacher is provided with lay help and if he is allowed funds for the purchase of modern programmed learning materials. Further, the most efficient use of school personnel would be achieved if teachers were concerned only with the teaching of their subjects and if such added burdens as homeroom supervision, study hall monitoring, and lunch and playground duty were delegated to people hired on a part time basis for these specific duties. If there is a staffing problem, it is also possible to move such courses as driver education and health education outside the normal schedule of the school day, to make them voluntary, and to assign those teaching them to other classes of an academic nature which they are qualified to teach. Their teaching in programs ancillary to the academic program could be done on their own time for extra pay.

The staffing of the community college might present problems. Ideally, those teaching at this level would have completed a minimum of two years graduate study in their respective academic fields. The pay scale could be such that the teacher would be motivated by it to pursue his education as far as possible. Also a junior college system might profit by bearing part of the tuition expenses of faculty members who are continuing their educations. In some short fields such as chemistry, mathematics, and physics, the college might employ one very well qualified person to handle large lecture sections and might assign those who are less qualified to the handling of laboratory sections, as is presently done in most universities in the country. Community college also will have to draw increasingly upon part time help from people in the community who are engaged primarily in pursuits outside teaching.

In summary, I propose that the student whose education will terminate upon graduation from high school pursue a 6-4-2 program. The student whose education will terminate upon completion of community college should pursue a 6-4-4 program which would include two years of work beyond the twelfth grade. The student who plans to work towards a bachelor's degree should pursue a 6-3-4 program followed by three years of college.

The benefits of this program are essentially that (1) there will be

fewer dropouts among those not planning to go beyond twelfth grade; (2) many students who would normally terminate their educations at the twelfth grade, thereby entering the labor market as unskilled or semi-skilled workers, would be motivated to take terminal courses at the community college and would thereby qualify as skilled workers; and (3) those students going on to college would have one additional year of higher education, yet would be graduated one year sooner, thereby entering the labor market one year sooner and entering it at a level where the demand for workers is great.

Social Studies Interests of Children

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The American elementary school child of today lives in a society far different than the pre-World War II era of his parents. Rapid means of transportation have provided greater opportunities for extended travel. Widespread use of mass communication, particularly television and motion pictures, has brought new experiences to children at an ever increasing rate. The recent growth of paperback and magazine publications has provided children with vicarious travel experiences unknown to previous generations. These vicarious experiences and travel opportunities have helped to increase and broaden children's interests in every part of the world and universe. These interests encompass aspects and areas unknown to previous generations of children.

In the fall of 1961 a study of children's social studies interests was conducted in three schools of an industrial city in central Pennsylvania.¹ Each of the three schools represented a different occupational group. One school was located in the industrial center of the city. Parents of children in that school were employed primarily as laborers, factory workers and construction workers. A second school was located in an area where parents were foremen, business men, semi-skilled and unskilled workers. The third school was located in a residential section of the city where parents were mostly professional people and business men.

The population of the study was composed of nine groups of children, a second, a fourth and a sixth grade from each of the three schools. There was a total of two hundred eighty children in the nine groups. The children completed a questionnaire to determine the out-of-school experiences they had that might increase or broaden their interests in the social studies. The questionnaire sampled children's

¹ Donald C. LaDue. *Social Studies Interests of Second, Fourth and Sixth Grade Children as Evidenced in Their Art, Writing, Oral Expression and Selection of Reading Materials*. Doctoral Dissertation, School of Education, The Pennsylvania State University, 1962.

travel experiences and use of audio and visual communications.

The responses of the questionnaire were analyzed and classified according to seven geographical areas—home, community, state, country (nation), hemisphere, world and universe. An analysis of the responses on the questionnaire revealed the following information:

1. There were no great differences in the number of communication and transportation facilities available to second, fourth and sixth grade children.

2. Children at higher grade levels seem to make more use of communication and transportation facilities than children in lower grades.

3. More than sixty per cent of the children had television, encyclopedias, books and magazines in their homes, had attended a motion picture, had experienced a visitor from out of state and had traveled to another state.

4. Regardless of grade level or occupational group, children indicated they knew of interesting persons, places and things from beyond the boundaries of their community to the far reaches of the universe.

5. Children most often reported persons, places and things of interest in the nation, outside the boundaries of their own state. Interests in persons, places and things of the world were second in frequency mentioned on the questionnaire.

6. There was evidence that children acquired knowledge and had interests formed from their out-of-school experiences that extended beyond the geographical areas of social studies as structured in most elementary schools in the second, fourth and sixth grades.

More than four thousand samples of expressive experiences in art, writing, oral expression and self-selected reading materials were collected from the children. These samples were analyzed and classified in the same seven geographical areas as were the responses on the questionnaire.

Analysis and categorization of the expressive experiences of children evidenced interest in each of the seven geographical areas. Regardless of grade level or occupational group, interest in each area was expressed to some degree.

Samples of expressive experiences were most often in the category "country" (nation), but "world" and "community" were the second and third geographical areas most often mentioned. Children least

often contributed expressive experiences that pertained to the universe, hemisphere or state.

A similarity was found in the interests evidenced by fourth and sixth grade children. Most often they showed an interest in the nation and secondly in the world, while interest shown in the community ranked third.

The samples of expressive experiences for second grade children revealed nearly the same high degree of interest in "home" as in "country" although the category "community" contained a large percentage of samples. More than fifty-two per cent out of the samples from second graders pertained to persons, places or things beyond the geographical boundaries of their community.

Children in fourth grade expressed a greater interest in their nation as a whole than in the segment of the nation in which they lived. Forty-one per cent of the samples they contributed pertained to the nation. Interest in world situations was greater than interest evidenced in the children's own community.

Seventy per cent of the samples of expressive experiences from sixth grade children revealed interests in the United States and the world beyond the western hemisphere. Nineteen per cent of the samples revealed that sixth graders had interest in their community, state and home.

It was concluded from this study that social studies interests of second, fourth, and sixth grade children, regardless of grade level or occupational group of the parents, encompass geographical areas from the child's own home and community to various parts of the nation, world and universe. Furthermore, there seemed to be no emerging pattern which indicated that children's interests at any grade level were restricted to only one or two geographical areas. Children in second grade indicated as much interest in their community, nation and the world as did fourth and sixth grade children.

Although children's interests should not be the only criterion upon which a social studies program is based, it would seem that interests which children already have should be considered in the planning and development of a successful social studies program. The classroom teacher might develop more effective social studies lessons if she is aware of the breadth and variety of children's interests.

Mutual Benefit Program Between University and Mental Hospital

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In the fall of 1960, a unique relationship, based on mutual benefit, began between an educational psychology class at Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, Michigan, and child and adolescent patients at Ypsilanti State Hospital, a mental hospital. Once a week for nine weeks students from Dr. Israel Woronoff's "Human Growth and Development" class drove to the nearby hospital and, on an individual basis, tutored patients. The Tutoring Program, stemming from the hospital's need for educational service for its young patients and Dr. Woronoff's need for laboratory experience for the students of his educational psychology class, has developed, under the guidance of Miss Louise Marshall, Staff Clinical Psychologist at the hospital into a non-official but highly approved hospital program with hospital personnel serving in an advisory and supervisory capacity.

The program not only began informally but also by chance. Three Eastern students, the year before, had contacted Miss Marshall about possible service work that they could do at the hospital to fulfil requirements for a "Pre-Student Teaching Orientation Program" which was under the direction of Miss Margaret Robinson, Associate Professor of Library Science. At that time, a reading research project was in progress at the hospital. This project consisted of testing a group of patients, giving them individual tutoring, and then retesting them. The Eastern students served as tutors in this project, and finding the work enjoyable, thought other students might be interested in this type of service work. After the project was completed, the students questioned Miss Marshall about the possibility of other students doing tutoring at the hospital.

Miss Marshall, realizing that many of the young patients could benefit from individual tutoring, was delighted. Ypsilanti State Hospital has a school, organized and regulated by the Children's Service Bureau for patients age seven to seventeen. Yet there are adolescent patients, too old for the school program, whose schooling, because of their emotional problems has ceased prematurely. Also the hospital-school is faced with the same problem that the public-school faces, the problem of overcrowding. While there are about 125 children at the hospital, the 58 children enrolled in the school represent a maximum capacity figure. Of the remaining patients, many could benefit to some extent by an educational stimulus. Some of these are patients whose emotional problems prevent them from functioning in a classroom situation but who could respond to the individual attention they would receive in a tutoring situation. Tutoring could also benefit some of the children enrolled in the hospital-school but having difficulties in certain areas of the school curriculum.

However, nothing came of the project at this time. When some time had elapsed with no more interested students contacting her, Miss Marshall, through the Community Relation Department of the hospital, called Miss Robinson and learned that the "Pre-Student Teaching Orientation Program" had been discontinued. Upon Miss Robinson's suggestion, Miss Marshall contacted the Education Department, which in turn referred her to Dr. Woronoff.

Dr. Woronoff was looking for a laboratory project for his students but had some doubts of the value of tutoring emotionally disturbed children as a laboratory project for this class, since the "Human Growth and Development" course dealt with normal rather than abnormal patterns of development. And the majority of the students taking this course were not special education students, but were students preparing to teach in elementary or secondary classrooms. Dr. Woronoff discussed the project with other members of the department. They tended to feel that there would be little value for the students in this experience and were not interested in having their students taking part in the project. However, Dr. Woronoff believing that the professional growth of his students could be aided by this opportunity for an actual teaching experience decided to have his students take part in the Tutoring Program on a trial basis.

The student's reaction to the Tutoring Program was surprisingly favorable. The Tutoring Program became so popular with the students, that students taking the course from other instructors also wished to take part. Unfortunately, this was not possible. Due to minor problems and complications resulting from the first informal arrangement consisting of the student being provided with keys and tutoring the patient in the ward, a more formal arrangement was devised with the patients being brought to the school area of the hospital, after the regular school session was finished, for their tutoring. While this arrangement provides more security and peace-of-mind for the students taking part in the program, it also limits the number of students taking part in the program. And at the present time about seventy-five students participate each semester.

Evaluating the benefits derived by the Eastern Michigan students taking part in this program is very difficult. These benefits seem as varied as the students themselves and the children they tutor. A few students feel that, although the tutoring was an interesting experience, they gained nothing that will be of value to them later as teachers. Balancing this opinion, is the opinion of other students who feel that this experience was more beneficial to them as future teachers than any other projects they have participated in at the University. One student's opinion was that the Tutoring Program should be required of all the students taking the "Human Growth and Development" course. He felt that this was the only laboratory experience in which the student had the chance to develop independence and assume responsibility. "It really gives us a chance to try out what we have learned without leaning on the support of a supervisor or without wondering what the supervisor thinks about our methods of teaching." Another student regretted that she could not continue with the Tutoring Program for her laboratory experience in other educational psychology classes. She complained, "Nine weeks is too short a time. I had just reached the point where I felt that I was accomplishing something when the project was over."

Many students feel that the Tutoring Program provided them with actual examples of some of the learning principles they were studying in the "Human Growth and Development" class. For example, motivation seems to play a very important role in the tutoring of these children. One student, tutoring a child in American History, had spent

several weeks going over one chapter in the textbook but the child seemed unable to retain any of the material. Yet when the child requested and was given a copy of the Gettysburg Address, she quickly and easily memorized it. Another student was tutoring a boy in the multiplication table. Learning the table would enable him to pass into a higher grade at the hospital-school; however, multiplication drills bored him, he was inattentive, and making no progress. The student worked out a learning game employing the child's interest in drawing. Now enjoying the process, the child began to learn the tables.

Through the Tutoring Program, other students gained practical experience in recognizing and handling the individual differences in personality and emotion in the children that they taught. One student, who tutored a pupil of changeable emotions, commented that accepting the mood of the child and finding a method of handling this mood in order to make progress in the tutoring, was a tremendous challenge.

Most of the students had never been in a mental hospital prior to the Tutoring Program and began their tutoring with apprehension. However, in going to the hospital each week and becoming acquainted with one of the patients, their apprehensions disappeared. One student expressed this feeling when he said, "I don't know what I expected, something unnatural—freaks, I guess. But they are just people with problems." Miss Marshall feels that this is an important aspect of the program since teachers are often in a position to recognize the emotionally disturbed child. If the teacher is free of some of the misconceptions and fears that surround mental illness, he may be better able to encourage the parents of the child to seek aid at an earlier, less resistant stage.

For some students, the Tutoring Program has had an important influence on their personal lives. One student found the tutoring so interesting and rewarding that she changed from a secondary education curriculum to a special education curriculum and plans to teach in a mental hospital after graduation. Another student enrolled in the Tutoring Program with more than the usual amount of fears. After completion of the program, she told Dr. Woronoff how very glad she was that she had decided to take part in the program. The girl's mother was a patient at Ypsilanti State Hospital. She had suffered postpartum depression upon the birth of the girl many years before and had never

recovered. The girl, growing up with fears of mental illness and mental hospitals which were accentuated by the fact that her mother's illness had stemmed from her birth, had never seen her mother. Through the weekly tutoring sessions at the hospital, the girl had become accustomed to the hospital and now felt strong enough to visit the mother she had never known.

The Tutoring Program at Ypsilanti State Hospital is still in the beginning stage. There are improvements which could possibly make the program even more beneficial for both the students and the patients. But the response of the patients to the program has caused the hospital to give approval and recognition to this special program, and the response of the Eastern Michigan University students has caused other faculty members in the department of Education to inquire about the possibility of their students taking part in the program. It, therefore, seems likely that this program of mutual benefit will continue to grow, improving as it matures.

The “Care and Feeding” of New Teachers

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Any metaphor that likens teachers to infants is not likely to be popular with the school staff, but the new teacher (especially a beginner) is sometimes as dependent on help from others as a new-born babe. Effective staff members aren't just “born,” i. e., graduated from the teachers colleges; they need “care and feeding” as they grow and develop into competent, mature teachers.

This is not a criticism of the neophyte teacher so much as it is just the nature of things. However, it does reflect on the dearth of practical pre-service experience in the teacher preparation period. Although most teachers colleges have practice teaching on an organized basis, there is usually little attempt to provide experience in such areas as extra-classroom duties, teacher-administrator-supervisor relationships, curriculum planning, and community-school relations. Partly as a consequence of this, the beginning teacher on his first job has not only a need to be oriented to the school and community, but also some very important needs in regard to a general induction to his career.

Even teachers with some years of experience need more than a brief run-down on the school and community set-up when they enter a new system. While the young teacher must develop that necessary confidence in himself as a competent professional and become adjusted to his new adult role in society, the experienced teacher is already over this hurdle. But he needs the confidence which comes from “knowing the ropes” of the local situation. He is likely to be more troubled with a vague doubt as to whether he is really accepted by his new colleagues than with any doubt of his own capabilities. There is a certain strain and worry about fitting into the new setting, and both the experienced teacher and the beginner need to know they are

wanted and will be given tasks and status commensurate with their ability. As quickly as possible they want to be a successful part of the local "team."

Orientation to the school and to the community, induction into a career and to a professional organization, development of effective personal relationships—these make a large order for the school administrator and staff which seriously attempts to help new teachers become adjusted and develop their own potentialities as soon as possible. But the stakes are higher than most school administrators realize, for the absence of a genuinely helpful induction is a primary cause of much low teacher morale and dissatisfaction. The schools thus can lose two ways in this crucial introduction of new teachers to the system: by discouraged teachers actually dropping out of the profession, and by the mediocre achievement of teachers whose early interest and enthusiasm is snuffed out through failure to provide the means that could draw out their best achievement. Very often it is the teacher's first-year experiences in a school system that determine his attitude toward his work and the extent of his participation in its broader aspects.

The administrative responsibility for effective orientation and induction is squarely on the superintendent's shoulders. All his professional staff should be utilized, and the parents, board members, and community agencies can be encouraged to participate, but it is the chief executive of the schools who must see that a well-planned program is developed and carried out. The teachers in the system are more likely to know the real needs of a new teacher and thus are the most promising group of planners on which the administrator can rely. They should also have the larger role in carrying out the aspects of school orientation. For community relations the P. T. A., board members, and other agencies are important. And for the critical job of improving the teaching situation for the newcomer, the supervisory personnel are most valuable.

"The right thing at the right time" is a good maxim for successful orientation and induction. In point of time, the basic techniques should probably follow somewhat in this order: 1) pre-school conferences (before school opens), 2) professional orientation (either just before school opening or in the first few weeks), 3) supervision

of the teaching situation (beginning early in the year), 4) community relations (during the year), and 5) in-service education (on schedule throughout the year).

Pre-school conferences with the administrator or placement officer for teaching and building assignments, and with the building principal for discussion of specific teaching and extra-class duties, are the initial step. The true concern of the principal for the teacher's welfare will show up at this point in such matters as the sincerity of his efforts to be sure that the teacher has adequate living accommodations readily accessible to the school, the amount of effort he makes to acquaint the teacher with co-workers and the school plant, and the genuineness of his welcome and respect. *Esprit de corp* begins here.

Inclusion of the new teacher in the working conferences commonly held in school systems just prior to school opening will do much to augment the professional and personal status of the newcomer. Although these sessions are usually for teachers, supervisors, and administrators to cooperatively work on school problems and thus cannot take special pains with new teachers, it will be valuable to involve the new teacher in the sessions if only as a bystander. Much can be gained by observation, and the operating relationships of the various types of personnel can be grasped through first-hand experience.

Orientation to the school system may be incorporated in these pre-school working conferences, but since the conferences are system-wide little can be done about orientation to specific schools. A special orientation conference for all new teachers of a particular school, or a general faculty meeting of the school is usually necessary. Held just prior to school opening, or on opening day itself, such meetings are the best opportunity for the teachers to participate in orienting the newcomers. The principal can utilize the experienced teachers' help in discussing and presenting handbooks, guides, and bulletins explaining school philosophy and policies, and acquainting the new teachers with the special services of the school, the mechanics of pupil accounting, pupil personnel records, and the system for evaluating pupil achievement. Opportunities should be given for the new teachers to ask questions.

Assigning an experienced teacher to sponsor or assist a new teacher can be done at the orientation meetings. Thereafter, the sponsoring

teacher can provide help in a more personal way as the new teacher comes with further questions. Such a relationship may be continued throughout the first semester or even the first year. It is certain that the newcomer will not assimilate all that he is exposed to in the orientation meetings, and careful re-orientation can be handled by the sponsoring teacher and supervisory or departmental personnel in the ensuing weeks. The principal should be concerned about this follow-up, also.

Early in the school year personal conferences between the new teacher and all the supervisory agents should be arranged. It is essential for the teacher to know how and where he can get help in improving teaching methods and in securing teaching aids and supplies. A variety of techniques for improving the teaching situation can be employed. Individual and group conferences, classroom visitations, committee assignments and self-evaluation are some of the techniques that may help. As many classroom visits should be made by the supervisors as are necessary to help the new teacher with the problems that he encounters. The emphasis in this period of induction of the newcomer into his job is one of help, not inspection or evaluation, and the assistance given must be as close to the situation as possible. This is where "care and feeding" pay big dividends in terms of the growing confidence and skill of the new teacher.

No matter how well the professional orientation and induction to the job is carried out, a large part of the problem of personal well-being is still untouched. The newcomer to the community likes to feel that he is welcome and know that friendly social groups will include him in their midst. Opportunities for recreation and cultural entertainment are important to him. His acquaintance with colleagues, from fellow-teachers to administrators, board members and parents should be broadened through P. T. A. receptions, open-houses, and meetings of a social nature. Excursions and other activities designed to familiarize the newcomer with civic life and institutions are part of the community relations tasks that groups outside the school can assume. Efforts that will aid the new teacher in discovering and using community resources, both for his personal pleasure and in his job, are well spent. They lead to an involvement in community life that is beneficial to both the teacher and the community. Such "care" by the

community will probably foster a growing sense of civic responsibility on the part of the new community member, and special efforts should be made by community organizations to extend a welcoming hand to the newcomer in his first year of residence.

It may be surprising to some administrators that in-service education would be considered a part of the orientation and induction of a new teacher. It is not until the newcomer has become a part of this program, however, that the induction process is really complete. In-service education programs represent the on-going professionalization of career teachers, and contact with this process may be said to signify the beginner's confirmation as a career teacher. Even the teacher with experience who is new to the system is not completely inducted into it until he is involved in the full operation of the school, including its on-going efforts for the internal improvement of its staff. Extension courses, lecture series, workshops, visitation in other schools, reading clubs, or other in-service methods are as valuable to the new teacher as to the old hand, and the newcomer should be inducted into them sometime in his first year.

Perhaps the most fruitful summary of the orientation and induction efforts of the school is in terms of the needs of the new teacher. While the metaphorical "care and feeding" implies what must be done for the new teacher, the real emphasis should be to find ways to help him satisfy his needs as an individual, a staff member, and as a community member. The identification of his problems in these three spheres will be the real clue to a successful program of orientation.

Social Studies Curriculum

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The social studies curriculum in many of today's high schools fails in two obligations: first, students are not taught how to organize an examination of an area of the contemporary world in order to gain an understanding of the people, their problems, and what effect they have on the international scene, especially their relationship with the United States; second, time is seldom found to study the underdeveloped and/or non-western nations of the world community.

The "Editor's Page" of *Social Education* calls our attention to the need of studying the non-western nations in two accent issues of April, 1959, and March, 1960. In the former, our lack of vision in the Far East, especially China, is called our "Blind Spot," while in the issue on Africa, Mr. Todd refers to ". . . our growing awareness of the importance of Africa . . ." as "New Horizons." America's high school principals recognized the need to study the entire world and placed the following premise in a position paper during the meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals in February, 1961: "Unless the students of today learn to live in the world of tomorrow they face annihilation in a global holocaust."

I believe the curriculum deficiencies mentioned above can be adequately met in an advanced elective social studies course for those students who have completed the required studies. Many able students would welcome an ambitious and profitable offering which would allow them to increase their efficiency in familiar skills and acquire new methods and habits in study. Research, for example, would require more than the trusted encyclopedia because it would involve not only gathering information but interpreting facts and situations, sometimes from multiple points of view. A requisite to this accomplishment is that the student's education move from study skills alone into research skills. A program of study providing these opportunities would build on the foundation established by the existing curriculum, tie much of

it together, and give impetus to continued exploration of and service to man and his problems.

Paul Davis, principal of Manatee High School, Bradenton, Florida, asked the author to develop an advanced social studies course which would meet the needs mentioned above. Subsequently the course, *Introduction to Political Geography*, was twice offered as a one semester course. Evaluation by students and teachers, including other instructors in the social studies department, brought two major reactions: one, the course was very worthwhile; two, the course should be extended to two semesters to allow more detailed study of various problems, more reading on all topics, and the addition of more problem areas to be studied. As developed, the course is presented below.

The discipline of political geography is introduced because of the emphasis on description and analysis of the political area. The politically organized area, the nation, is dealt with primarily because it is at this level that we as citizens are represented to other peoples of the world through the foreign policy of the United States. Political geography, as described, encompasses certain aspects of the physical sciences in addition to its dependence on the various social science disciplines. The offering allows the student to apply those concepts of physical and social geography, history, economics, government, and political science he has learned in the typical high school curriculum to the practical problems of today and tomorrow. The student's limited knowledge of the social science disciplines will be broadened as he tries to understand an area of the earth's surface and, more important, the people who live there. The problem solving approach could be used primarily to strengthen the student's ability to attack logically a complex situation and marshal and direct facts toward a solution.

Given here is a topical outline of the two semesters, *Introduction to Political Geography*. The outline is followed by a general discussion of the course including the modifications that experience has suggested.

- I. Introduction to Objectives and Materials
- II. Review of Terms Germane to Political Geography
- III. Overview of Elements of National Power
- IV. Discussion of Specific Problems (population and levels of living)
- V. Outline of a Geographical Survey of a Nation or Area

After an introduction to the course objectives, in which the students should take part, a discussion of the available reference materials is a must. This introduction should include a thorough treatment of maps as to merits of projections, various uses, pertinent terminology and interpretation of legends. It is usually wise to review the causes of the seasons and time differential over the earth. Experience has taught the author not to omit a basic review on the assumption that the able student is fully capable in these concepts.

The next area for concentration is still in the realm of review. When applied to current events, however, this review should stimulate some lively discussion. The emphasis is on defining terms or concepts that are germane to a probing analysis of a nation's international relations, such as imperialism, colonialism, mercantilism, nationalism, democracy, totalitarianism, the various economic systems and foreign policy. Here the study is tied to previous social studies courses and the time spent will vary according to the needs of the group. Discussions may be led with questions such as, "Are there good and bad dictatorships?" or, "Is foreign aid a type of imperialism?"

Comments and answers should be based on current events. The student's failure to understand every aspect of each topic will point up the need for future attention and research and should be stored up as smouldering motivation.

Elements of national power could be the next conceptual undertaking. This will be a study of the factors by which the strength of a nation could be measured. For the best reference, to my knowledge, see Hans J. Morgenthau, *Politics Among Nations*, page 80. A high school reference is J. H. Bradley, *World Geography*, page 363. The elements are here referred to as "Fundamentals of National Strength." Morgenthau lists geography, natural resources, industrial capacity, military preparedness, population, national morale and quality of diplomacy as the elements upon which a nation's power is based. Morgenthau's reference to geography is physical in nature and includes primarily location (mathematical and relative), areal characteristics and shape. This writer is aware that these factors could entail a great amount of detailed study; however, the suggestion is to overview this section, giving an example of each element and suggesting outside reading since a great deal has been written recently on each topic.

The population factor should be dealt with last in order to attain course continuity and in order that the problem of "people versus resources" be discussed in some detail. This discussion leads directly into the next area of concentration, levels of living. It is amazing how many high school students believe that a "low level of living" means only one car and one television set in each home. On the other hand, it is interesting to note how quickly these same students are yanked into reality when they view a film showing the young Indian girl patting cattle dung into cakes to be burned as fuel. It is imperative that they have in a proper perspective the different modes and levels of living of the world's peoples.

In order to attain our goals, a proper progression of the study would necessitate the practical application of the concepts, knowledge and skills that have been learned. In accord with previously mentioned curriculum needs, it is suggested that the study deal not with isolated states but rather with nations as they are related to international problems or problem areas, such as the India-Pakistan problem or the Middle East-North Africa complex. At this point the problems of the people and/or nations being studied become the student's problems. A possible outline to follow while investigating a nation is explained below.

Man, to be sure, is the most important structure to be studied but it is not absolutely necessary that he be studied first. After all, he failed to make his appearance in *Genesis* until the sixth day. The physical characteristics will provide a setting as the subject area is located on a map and its mathematical and relative location, size, shape and physiography are examined. The stage upon which the drama of man continues to unfold is further set as the climate or climates, the natural vegetation and the natural resources are discussed. Stress should be applied to the concept that a resource (real or potential) is of little value until man uses it or has plans to use it. This reference is to natural resources though attention should be drawn to the importance and types of cultural and human resources.

Consideration of this most important structure, man, should initiate some deep thought as to the value of human resources. Not in regard to man collectively, nor as to how men are used, but mankind should be scrutinized as individual personalities. The student must realize

the importance of acknowledging with understanding the value systems of the people under consideration. To the individual his ethnic system, spiritual values and considerations are of supreme interest and import. To miss this lesson is to construct a deep chasm between the student and his understanding of the culture in question. Any American history *student* should be able to comment on the "certain inalienable rights" and the "worth of the individual" in regard to the United States citizen, but what if the individual in question is a Moslem goat herder in Afganistan? What rights does he have? Who should be concerned about his well-being? Should we? Where is the limit to this "brother's keeper" thesis which our Christian religion places upon our shoulders if not our consciences?

Population factors can also be the source of a great deal of interesting mental exercise to high school young people. Various maps and tables may be used to find human statistics such as total number, density, location, life expectancy and rates of births and deaths. The mathematics encountered in graphs, tables, and rates becomes very meaningful.

Continuity should be strengthened by correlating maps of the land-forms, climate, vegetation and natural resources with those of population. Why and how questions dealing with levels of living should arise at this point and will carry over into the study of ethnic characteristics, particularly race, religion, education, health and government. In each of these areas considerable understanding and maturity are called for to subdue notions such as, "We do it this way," or, "They would just have to look at the United States to see that our brand of democracy is best," or, "They should be better off since we give them so much foreign aid."

The preceding population traits will be better understood as they are related to the next activity, an historical survey. The research for this survey should include an account, when possible, from the point of view of the peoples being studied. Usually a letter to an embassy will satisfy this need.

Definitions and concepts of terms such as mercantilism and nationalism should be better understood as the student attempts to see the question through the eyes of the former colonists. This is not to imply that the backward or underdeveloped nation is always "right but

misunderstood and misused.”

The historical survey will serve as the proper foundation and will illuminate the study of the coeval economic. The survey of the economic factors of agriculture, industry, transportation, power, and trade should be dealt with in the light of how man makes a living as well as in reference to the effect on national power in the sense of foreign policy. In this step of the study, as in other areas, many individual investigations may be conducted. From some of these studies the students will note the paucity of and, in many instances, contradictory materials available. This circumstance in itself will provide an insight to the problems confronting these nations. Interdependence of the nations of the world might be amplified as the state's economic health is scrutinized. A discussion of economics in the basic areas of capital, labor, raw materials and markets should provide an opportunity to overview the complex problems of shipment of excess foods from one nation to another for humanitarian purposes, or the problems and possibilities of free trade agreements, or the consequences of common markets.

To culminate the study of an area, a time should be devoted to dealing with its problems and their effect on the United States. On completion of this discussion an evaluation of the foreign policy of the United States should be made to ascertain how satisfactorily the situation is being handled.

Numerous paperback books, films and substantial periodicals may be used in such a course as the instructor directs, yet I feel several common references should be used by each student. I have used and highly recommend *The Nature of the Non-Western World* by Vera Micheles Dean. Several copies of a good college political geography text, such as *World Political Geography* by Percy and associates, afford a reliable source from which to project individual studies as well as discussions of geo-political concepts. Publication dates of all materials used must be considered.

I feel such a course is an answer to those needs mentioned at the beginning of this article. It is natural that there are many desirable methods of presenting such an offering successfully. However, from past experience in teaching this course, the above continuity has been both practical and rewarding.

A LETTER

Below is printed a letter carefully written by Miss Carol Halliday, a Peabody Graduate Student in Special Education. The letter was in response to an inquiry made by a friend of hers under conditions which the letter explains.

THE EDITOR

1929-19th Avenue, South
Nashville, Tennessee
February 26, 1963

Miss Linda Ehrlich
2507 Wendell Avenue
Louisville 5, Kentucky

Dear Linda,

It was good to receive your letter and to hear of your interest in children who are blind. I will do my best to answer your excellent questions, although I wish it were possible to *talk* with you about them because, in some cases, I could more adequately *say* what there is to tell rather than *write* it to you.

1. "What can blind children do and what can't they do?"

Blind children are very much like any children. If they have no other problem except the inability to see—that is, if their hearing is good, if their minds function well, if they have no crippling difficulties, etc.—they will be able to work, play, learn and do all the things other children do, although they will probably need to be *shown* more carefully how to do things which sighted children learn to do just by *watching* others.

2. "How do you overcome fear?"

Most children are *taught* to be *afraid* by the actions and attitudes of those around them. This is true of children who are blind, also. In a comfortable, secure home and school setting, few fears will develop. In some situations, children who see, as well as those who don't, need to learn a certain respect for things in their environment—for example, with regard to traffic when crossing a street—and this has to be taught the children

by parents and teachers.—It's always amazing to me how many sighted people, children and adults, learn to fear snakes, as another kind of example. Children who are blind can learn this *needless* fear, if taught to do so by others, but they can also learn—through holding a harmless snake and thus getting acquainted with it—that, in most cases, there is no need to be afraid of snakes. When fears *do* exist for blind children, they can best be overcome by explaining the situation, or object, to the child concerned and by helping him become familiar with what is feared—but, better still, is *preventing* the fear from starting in the first place.

3. “Can a blind child get along in a regular school?”

If you will look at the answer to question one again, I would like to point out that if a blind child has no other problems except his blindness, he may very well be able to be a part of a regular school program and get along very nicely in it. He will need, however, to learn to read and write in Braille, so either the regular teacher or another teacher with special training will need to teach him Braille along with his other classroom work.

4. “If home conditions are satisfactory, is it better for a blind child to be taught at home or in a residential or city day school?”

It is the feeling of most people who know and work with blind children that it is much better for them to remain at home and go to school in their own communities if this is possible. Residential schools are often very good, and are *sometimes* the best places for blind children to attend, but being a part of the home surroundings—especially where *young* children are concerned—it is of great importance.

5. “How do you develop interest?”

Children who are blind develop interest in things—objects, people, activities—by becoming *aware* of them. This is true, also, of children who see, but—with blind children—this usually means making more certain that they *are* aware, because—without vision—these children will need to hear, or touch, or taste, or smell, before they can realize the possibilities around them. For instance, often these youngsters will

have heard many times the word "grapefruit." Until they actually hold one, however, and feel it, smell it, peel it, and taste it, they have only a vague idea of what a grapefruit is. Once they *know*, they may very well become more interested—and may want to find out where these fruits grow, when, how, and so on. As another example, before a blind child goes on a picnic and actually finds out what this means—because he can't look through the car window on a Sunday drive and watch people in the park having a picnic—he may have little interest in such an activity. Once he's been *part* of a picnic, however, you can imagine that his interest will grow by leaps and bounds!

6. "Are blind children more sensitive? Why or why not?"

Generally, blind children are not more sensitive—if you mean by this, sensitive to other people—especially when they are young folks. As they grow older, this may change, as it often does with sighted children. Concern about clothes develops, as does more awareness of personal appearance and more attention to the thoughts and opinions of other people. If the child who is blind has good help at home, learns to take care of himself and his belongings, is part of a happy school setting and has friends around him, he will be no more *sensitive* than we would want anyone to be in order to get along well with himself and others.

7. "How do you help a blind child to develop socially?"

To some extent, blind children will grow socially by just being with others, of their own age, younger, and older than they are. However, as you can probably well imagine, many things will have to be *shown* them which children who *see* could learn simply by observing. Such things as learning to set a table correctly, shaking hands, standing when older people enter a room, dancing, and so forth, will all need to be pointed out to the blind child and he will need help in practising such actions before he will feel comfortable doing them.

8. "Do you find Braille, Moon type, or Talking Books better?"

So far as writing and touch-reading are concerned, Braille is now the "medium" generally used and taught in the schools.

The *reading* of Braille takes much practice, however, and is slower—even at best—than print-reading, so the use of Talking Books is good as second means of adding to a child's reading possibility. Sometimes, also, books are not available in Braille and they will be on a Talking Book. Therefore, both are desirable.

9. "Do you think blind children should be taught before school age?"

Just as *all* children are taught before school-age, blind children need to be, also. At home, especially, but in other settings, too—for example, at Sunday School and in kindergartens—they can and should learn many things which will help them to mature and to be ready for school.

10. "What did you find was the hardest topic for a blind child to learn?"

Each *blind* child is *different*, just as every *sighted* child is *different*. Therefore, it would be hard to say, as a general rule. However, one thing which is certainly not easy for most blind children—and takes constant practice and learning, as well as much concentration—is the getting about from place to place. (We call this "mobility.") Those who see take this pretty much for granted, but those who *don't* see have to work quite hard at this. They must become familiar with where they are and where they want to go through using all the senses we mentioned before—touch, hearing, smell, even taste, sometimes—then they must *remember*, so that they can use what they have learned another time.

11. "What age should a blind child begin school?"

Blind children could be ready to begin school when *most* children are ready to do so, if they have had good experiences at home—have been given chances to be with other children—have been away from home on occasion—and have learned to take care of themselves satisfactorily. More and more, people are coming to believe that perhaps there is no definite age at which a child should start school—that it's a matter, rather, of individual differences. In spite of this trend in thinking, however, we generally agree that *six* is a good age—and—

insofar as this applies to children who see—it applies also to those who do not.

12. “What do you do for blind children with poor sense of touch?”
Such children *sometimes* only *seem* to have a poor sense of touch. This may be due to lack of home-training or it may be the result of the child’s having had so much done *for* him that he has had little chance to “do” for himself. If *this* is the case, practice at school in using his hands in many ways may help him a great deal. In the cases where a child really does *not* have a good sense of touch, and uses his hands poorly, we would still try to help him improve this through practice and would aid him all we could in working out ways by which he could make up for this lack. For instance, if a child could not recognize his coat by touching the material, then he would need help in figuring out a way by which he *could* recognize it—perhaps through identifying the buttons, or another special feature.—Children whose sense of touch is *extremely* poor and can not be improved will indeed have difficulties, but can be helped, to an extent, to overcome them.

Linda, I do hope that these answers will be of assistance to you in your study. They are based—as you requested—on my own experience, for the most part, so perhaps you would find that *another* person would reply somewhat differently to the same questions.

I just hope that—through these answers—I have been able to share with you the realization that children who are blind are very much like other children, except that they do not see. They will need special helps, sometimes; they will need more time to learn, often, because fingers don’t take in as much, or as quickly, as do eyes. Just think, too, how very much you learn by *listening*, and be aware that much of what a blind child learns is by means of his hearing. In most ways, though, children who are blind are like other children of their age and background whom you will have known.

Enjoy your studies! My good wishes—to you and to your class.

Sincerely,
Carol Halliday

2507 Wendell Avenue
Louisville 5, Kentucky
February 22, 1963

Miss Carol Halliday
1929 19th Ave., South
Nashville, Tennessee

Dear Miss Halliday,

I am Linda Ehrlich and my mother is a good friend of Miss Mary Ann Millit. I am doing a research report on the social, economic, and educational adjustments for the blind for my fifth grade class. I have interviewed Miss Millit. My mother also used to have a group of handicapped children. I would like to ask you a few questions. Would you please send the answers as soon as possible.

1. What can blind children do and what can't they do?
2. How do you overcome fear?
3. Can a blind child get along in a regular school?
4. If home conditions are satisfactory, is it better for a blind child to be taught at home or in a residential or city day school?
5. How do you develop interest?
6. Are blind children more sensitive? Why or why not?
7. How do you help a blind child to develop socially?
8. Do you find Braille, Moon Type, or Talking Books better?
9. Do you think blind children should be taught before school age?
(for preparation)
10. What did you find was the hardest topic for a blind child to learn?
11. What age should a blind child begin school?
12. What do you do for blind children with poor sense of touch?

All these questions are meant to be answered on the majority of blind children you taught. What I mean is will you please base your answers on how most blind children reacted.

Thank you very much.

Sincerely,
(signed) Linda Ehrlich

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September 1961 - August 1962

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Anna Loe Russell, Reference Librarian
George Peabody College for Teachers

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